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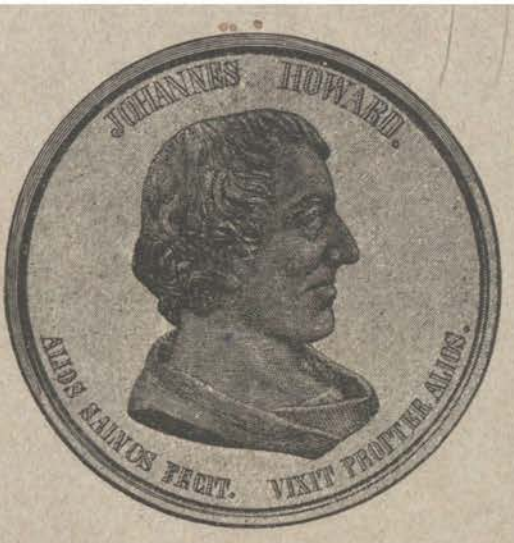

GOLD MEDAL OFFERED BY THE IMPERIAL GOVERNMENT OF RUSSIA TO THE WRITER OF THE BEST ESSAY ON THE LIFE AND WORK OF JOHN HOWARD.

[Whole Number 171

BUREAU OF EDUCATION
CIRCULAR OF INFORMATION NO. 2, 1891

THE FOURTH

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Report

INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS

ST. PETERSBURG, RUSSIA

1890

BY

C. D. RANDALL
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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., December 13, 1890.

SIR: I have the honor to transmit the manuscript of a circular upon the Fourth International Prison Congress, held at St. Petersburg, Russia, June 15 to 24, 1890.

The circular has been prepared at my request by the Hon. C. D. Randall, of Michigan, one of the leading authorities of this country on subjects connected with prison management and reform. It is intended to present to the public a summary of the proceedings and results of the three previous international congresses and the proceedings and addresses of the one last held.

Believing this subject to be one of great interest and to bear very directly upon many educational problems, I respectfully recommend the publication of the monograph as a circular of information of this Bureau.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

W. T. HARRIS,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

LETTER OF SUBMITTAL.

COLDWATER, MICH.,
December 8, 1890.

DEAR SIR: I herewith respectfully present you my report of the Fourth International Prison Congress, held in St. Petersburg in June last, which I had the honor to attend by arrangement with you and under appointment by the Department of State as official delegate. To this has been added an appendix giving an account of the entertainments and excursions tendered to the Congress, a monograph by Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy relative to the monuments in Russia to the memory of John Howard, an abstract of the conference of the managers of the reformatory and industrial institutions of Great Britain, in Glasgow, which I attended in part on my way to St. Petersburg, and an account of an interview with Mr. Komorsky, the inspector-general of the prisons of Siberia, at a meeting of the Société Générale des Prisons in Paris, in December last.

Very respectfully yours,

C. D. RANDALL.

Hon. WILLIAM T. HARRIS,
Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

CONTENTS.

	Page.
The invitation and the congress	9
The object of the congress—prison reform	10
The location of the congress—Russia	12
Progressive movement in Russian prison reform	15
Russian prison statistics	24
Is prison reform needed in the United States	27
The history of prison congresses:	
The first movements	33
The London international prison congress	34
The international prison congress in Stockholm	40
Opening of the congress	43
Programme	46
Resolutions	47
Regulations of the International Penitentiary Commission, articles 1 to 16 inclusive	50
Names of the delegates from the United States	51
Banquets in honor of the Stockholm congress	51
The congress of Rome	54
Programme of the congress, with the conclusions adopted	60
Souvenir of the congress	65
A few of the maxims and thoughts	65
The exposition of prison labor	67
Dr. Enoch C. Wines	69
Festivals and banquets	71
Advance opinions on the St. Petersburg Congress	72
Education and crime	74
Preparation for the International Prison Congress of St. Petersburg	76
Address of the delegate from Russia	78
Circular relative to international statistics of correctional institutions	80
Circular to the members of the international prison commission and to official delegates	81
The subjects and the reporters as last announced:	
Section first—Legislation	82
Section second—Prison discipline	84
Section third—Preventive measures	85
Preliminary statement	89
The programme	92
The assistant reporters	93
Meeting of the International Prison Commission	94
Opening of the Fourth International Prison Congress	98
The international prison exposition	103
Regular sessions of the congress	109
List of members	110

Page.
Discussions in the sections 117
Dr. Motet on intoxication and crime 118
Mr. Brockway on incorrigibility 124
Various reporters on incorrigibility 128
The contract system 132
Mr. Herbette on contract labor 138
Mr. Randall on prevention 139
Mr. Fuchs and others on prevention 148
Senator Roussell on evil influences of parents 156
Professor Spassowitch on John Howard 159
Senator Canonico on prison reform 161
Mr. Randall on Russia and the congress 169
Resolutions voted by the congress 171
Closing of the general assembly 182
Official dispatch of Minister Smith 191

APPENDIX.

Excursions and banquets 197
Memorials of John Howard 221
Conference of managers of reformatory and industrial institutions in Glasgow. 231
The new prison in St. Petersburg 239
Interview with Mr. Komorsky 243

THE FOURTH INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS,

HELD IN

ST. PETERSBURG, JUNE, 1890.

PART I.

PREVIOUS CONGRESSES AND PREPARATIONS FOR THE FOURTH.

THE INVITATION AND THE CONGRESS.

By invitation of the Emperor of Russia, the Fourth International Prison Congress was called to meet in St. Petersburg, in June, 1890, to be composed of official and non-official delegates, as were the congresses of London, Stockholm, and Rome. In these congresses the European nations have been represented as well as this country. With others, this country was invited to send a delegate and also to take part in the exposition of prison labor and construction.

The congress is not of Russian, but of American origin, as will be shown in this paper. Its formation and management are with a permanent body known as the International Penitentiary Commission, composed of delegates from various nations. The articles of organization will be found herein. This commission holds stated sessions, makes preparations for the congresses, publishes the proceedings, and by the collection and dissemination of useful information labors for prison reform.

This commission prescribes a programme, or list of questions, and appoints in various nations persons interested in social questions to write thereon. These reports from specialists, when received, are published in pamphlet form before the session of each congress, and serve as a basis for discussion; and out of these discussions come the resolutions adopted. These pamphlets are distributed to delegates in advance of the sessions. Some are a few pages in length, while others are a hundred or more, forming extended and able essays on the question submitted.

The proceedings of the congresses are published in book form and in the French language, all discussions and publications being in that language. All questions of the programme are first discussed in one of the

three sections, preventive, reformatory, or penal, and afterwards in the general assembly, where the conclusions are adopted. The proceedings of the congress of London are in one large octavo volume in the English language. The congress of Stockholm occupies two large volumes, and that of Rome six, all of which are in French. These volumes form a unique and highly valuable literature, covering the various branches of penology. Among the speakers and writers are men of international reputation, scholars, statesmen, and specialists. These volumes on social questions would enrich any library. These congresses are held about five years apart. Marked interest has each time been shown by the governments in the purposes and labors of the congresses, and every courtesy, attention, and encouragement has been extended to the members.

The object of this report is to call attention to what the International Prison Congress is doing for prison reform, to show the interest taken therein by most of the nations, and to inform the general public concerning a subject of most vital importance, though seldom so considered.

Other governments have been brought into this work through influences emanating from America, and they now very naturally expect that this country will continue its efforts in prison reform in these congresses. While the United States made appropriations to pay the expenses of representation in the congress in London and in Stockholm, where it was represented by the lamented Dr. Wines, it has not continued that material aid which other nations now uniformly extend. At the sessions of the commission in Geneva the following language appears in the proceedings:

We should not pass in silence the letter addressed by our president to His Excellency General Harrison at the time of his accession to the Presidency of the United States, to present the congratulations of the Commission and to draw his attention to the future work of the congress. We hope that the country of Dr. Wines will be officially represented at the reunion at St. Petersburg.

THE OBJECT OF THE CONGRESS—PRISON REFORM.

At the opening session of the congress of Rome, his excellency Mr. Mancini, deputy of Parliament and minister of state, spoke as follows relative to prison reform:

While I have the honor to address you I do not think it useless to add a word to dissipate an unfortunate prejudice which has generally arisen and to refute a profound error which attributes to the studies and discussions of our prison congresses, as well as to the reforms they promote, an end exclusively humane and philanthropic; as if we would protect malefactors and subject society to dangerous utopian experiments. No, gentlemen; we strongly protest against this dangerous error. We labor to discover a system of just and efficient repression, above all a sufficient safeguard to the peace, security, and good order of human society. This truly social and civilizing object requires the abandonment of every useless, dangerous, or corrupting penalty now in use.

Gentlemen, this investigation is worthy of your efforts and worthy the coöperation of all men of heart. I hope your noble work in the Congress of Rome will be fruitful in useful and practical results.

M. Ferdinand Désportes, the accomplished secretary of the "Société Générale des Prisons" and author of "La Science Pénitentiaire," in his preface to that work states the object of the congress as follows:

Is it not necessary at least to investigate this terrible problem, how the reformation of the guilty can be secured without sacrificing the principle of punishment; to what extent the voice of humanity can be obeyed without weakening the act of correction and rendering it illusive by mitigation; how a just anxiety for the individual can be reconciled to the interests of society; how we can at the same time punish the malefactor and protect the community; by what means childhood and youth can be saved from the contagion of vice; in a word, the criminal from the first relapse to evil? Such questions are calculated to arouse the solicitude of the Christian, the moralist, the philosopher, and the constant consideration of statesmen worthy of the name, and if anything can aid in their solution it is the tried experience of civilized nations, the acquaintance with examples they furnish, and the counsels and suggestions of men who in different places have passed their lives in a profound study of these problems.

This is why the International Prison Congress is of such high importance and practical scope. This is why it can be so useful in popularizing its results and extending its information and in calling public attention to the most formidable social evils and their proper remedies.

At the conclusion of his work M. Désportes further says:

Prison reform will succeed everywhere, because it will be everywhere desired. Our century, which has required and prepared for it, will see it accomplished. In a few years there will no longer be a people who do not comprehend that it is for their interest not only to arrest crime, but to dry up the source; not only to punish, but to render punishment useless; not only to construct prisons, but to empty them. And that to empty them two things are necessary: to make better those who have been brought there, and to divert to other ways those who have been led there by vice, abandonment, or poverty. * * * The Congress of Stockholm has had in view the public good only, the security of society, its legitimate defense against crime, and it has found the secret of this defense in the equal development of two principles—reform and expiation.

Concerning prison reform, the late venerable and distinguished Charles Lucas, member of the Institute of France, who for over sixty years had been the most intelligent and able advocate of prison reform, in his opening address at the formation of the "Société Générale des Prisons," said:

For more than twenty centuries the problem of education in society and in the family has been discussed. Ah, well; this problem is discussed to-day. We always labor for its solution. And it is only a half century since the problem of prison education was presented, and we have already seen the results. Can we say we have accomplished nothing? Without doubt we always seek a definite solution. But then, penitentiary reform has made its way, and the present should inspire hope for the future. We can not assuredly give a civilizing idea an impulse like the power of transmission by electricity. If man has to-day conquered space, he has not conquered the time it requires for the solution of all questions of reform, the gradual development of civilization, the softening of manners, and the advance of public intelligence. It is on this condition alone that reform advances surely to the future. But when such a reform as that of prison régime can so quickly secure such results we have the right to say with confidence that its future success is certain.

The object of these congresses is to discuss the many questions relative to poverty and crime. How to prevent and reduce them to the lowest possible minimum; how to cut off the sources of crime by the care and education of dependent children, restoring them to family homes; how to reform prisoners of both sexes, old and young, that they may be respectable self-supporting citizens, are some of the problems under discussion. Prison construction also, its adaptation and economy, and various systems of management, diet, and clothing, and the best method of child saving by the State or private aid and prisoners' aid societies, are also fully considered. In all these discussions the experience of practical men in all civilized countries is brought forward to enlighten, explain, and convince. The objects are broad as humanity itself, and the purposes are Christian and statesmanlike.

RUSSIA AS THE LOCATION FOR THE CONGRESS.

The invitation of the Russian Government to the Fourth International Prison Congress, to meet in St. Petersburg, was earnest, friendly, and cordial. In the minds of many of our people this has created some surprise, for the reason that a sentiment, growing out of the publication of alleged cases of cruel treatment of criminals and politicals, has widely prevailed, causing an impression that there was no desire in that country for humane prison management and that prison reform was substantially unknown. This has made many of our people believe that the Russians were a hard and cruel people, which is the reverse of the fact. As a people they are generous and friendly. It is not in the province of this paper to discuss, admit, or refute these cases of alleged cruelty. In conversing with prominent Russians, with those very near the Emperor, they frankly said to the writer: "We do not dispute that there is much truth in these charges, but what we claim is that only the worst side of our system is given, and that very many kind words could be said of us which would arouse a friendly sentiment in our behalf." This report can not approve or excuse transportation. Social science and public sentiment long ago condemned it. Its injurious effect on the convicts and on the colony and its admitted reflex influence on the country sending out its citizens are well established.

It is not because Russia has serious faults in her prison system—all countries have them—that the congress was called to St. Petersburg. It was because there are few nations for the past 100 years that have taken a more intelligent interest in prison reform, nor is there any country which in that time has made greater advances. Russia has always been a powerful friend and ally of America, and what Americans say or do should be in appreciation of that friendship which was certainly once a powerful factor in preserving our nationality. We should never forget that.

It is doubtful whether any country in the past one hundred years

has made greater progress in prison reform than Russia. During that time it has made penology a subject of thoughtful and constant study. The different sovereigns have taken a lively interest in the investigation, appointing learned commissions for the purpose. These commissions have thoroughly investigated prisons, their systems and conditions, both in Russia and western Europe, making extended reports to their Government which have served as the basis of many reforms. While all the best features of prison management, at home and abroad, were not always immediately adopted, there was a steady advance on the whole, a steady progress from the semi-Asiatic methods of over a hundred years ago to the modern methods of western Europe. Great reforms have been slow in Russia. They have always been slow even under our skies, where we have had for centuries all the light afforded by Christianity, the arts, the sciences, the civil and common law, and by every powerful civilizing force. It was only a short time since that we Americans hung women for witchcraft and banished men and women from the colonies for religious opinion; that we enslaved 4,000,000 people; and yet have in our borders the chain-gang-lease system. It may be that we ought to keep silent. Even the superficial student of history knows that Russia in the time of Peter the Great was more Asiatic than European, and knows of her great advance since then. It may be some time before her social and political systems are logical and correct in all respects. Her civilization may be Russian, peculiarly so, and yet as acceptable. There is a strong Russian party that believes in a Russian and not a western European civilization. It is only since Peter the Great that Russia has taken its place as a great civilized European power. In that time it has made enormous strides. Much of its time and effort have been required to subdue robber tribes and clans of the Caucasian and Asiatic border. Law and order, if not liberty, have everywhere followed its flag. It is now bringing into the domain of civilization northern and central Asia. Before this century closes it will open by transcontinental railways and otherwise an immense region to travel and commerce. A government that does this has done a vast work for the Christian world.

At home, Russia has established and maintains universities and professional schools of a high order. Common schools have been established and are slowly increasing, though inadequate for their purpose. Civilization in Russia is not at rest. There is a constant and steady progress. There are usages, methods, laws, and systems which have long prevailed and still exist which could not exist in this country. The same might be said of other European nations. But new laws and new systems will in time make their way in Russia as well as in Europe generally.

In prison reform the best may be anticipated. Russia has a special prison department in its central administration, at the head of which is a very accomplished and humane gentleman, Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy,

and the improvement of prisons and prison discipline are matters of his careful and profound study. The correction of abuses may seem slow, but this prevails everywhere when the correction or management is left to officials, and the difficulty is immensely increased where the local administration is thousands of miles away from the central office. The only effective remedy for such abuses under any system is the free, searching inspection of the public press, which in time must prevail in all countries. In this respect what Russia most needs to-day is a press with reasonable freedom to discuss social and political questions and all acts or omissions of the administration. The power of the press is a growing one in spite of the restrictions of an abused censorship. The newspapers of Russia are now permitted to speak with more freedom than foreign papers of its internal policy. At the same time, travel, commerce, and social intercourse with other countries will continue to exert a healthful influence and will gradually work changes in her political and social system.

And it can be truthfully said that of all great reforms in Russia since the advent of Peter the Great, the greatest have found their origin and promotion in the sovereigns, whether in general or in prison administration. Peter the Great endeavored to force his people too rapidly into European methods, which were not always adapted to them. There has been too hurried an adoption of laws of western Europe into the Russian code. The result of this has been a code of laws which has been divergent in principle and contradictory in provisions without a precise criterion of responsibility. It has borrowed provisions which were ill adapted to accomplish the ends designed In many instances the system of punishment is impracticable and unsuitable. The new code is intended to remedy these defects and will soon do so. On the whole, the provisions of the criminal code are very mild compared with the laws of other countries. Under it the death penalty no longer exists except for crimes against the safety of the state or the person of the Emperor. The new code aims to reduce the extent of penalties about one-half. Aside from the exile feature and the administrative process for political prisoners, it is doubtful whether any more humane prison system exists. The tendency is strongly towards the gradual discontinuance of the exile system, and by many it is thought that it will be entirely discontinued within two or three years. Mr. Leonidas Schmourlo, a Russian writer, says in the bulletin of the Société Générale des Prisons of France, "The prison administration is inclined to suppress within two years transportation to Siberia;" but there are several reasons why this must be taken with considerable allowance. England tried transportation for many years and abandoned it. France still adheres to the system. Its history does not encourage its continuance. The few accounts we have of the operation of the system in Russia come from outside sources, and may be true and may be sensational to some extent. The accounts we receive from European sources are mainly

from those who are unfriendly to Russia. No Russian jurist has ever yet treated the subject for the 250 years it has existed, and so its true history must remain unwritten. We might say with Jules Sandeau:

I wish that Experience had a soul, that it might remember the tears it had cost.

But when we would censure the existing Government of that country for the exile of prisoners, we should remember that it is not entirely accountable for a custom 250 years old, deeply incorporated in the penal system, and acceptable to a great extent to the public sentiment of that country so far as its relates to criminals. It would take many years and great expense to substitute fully other methods for it. Whether transportation will be decreased or discontinued entirely must depend on public sentiment and on prison construction in Russia and in Siberia. Very much, however, is being constantly done to relieve the exile system of its many hardships, especially in the establishment of better methods for transfer by land and by water.

The question has been frequently asked whether the congress discussed Siberian exile. A general answer may be given that the congress did not discuss the penal system of any country. It discussed general principles only. The international prison commission had not placed on the programme any question directly relating to transportation, and hence it could not have been properly introduced. This may have been an act of courtesy on the part of the commission. No member of the congress appeared to have any tendency to act other than in a most friendly manner to Russia and its people, who placed before the congress, by the great exposition and its reports, full information regarding its prison and exile management. There was no apparent hesitation on the part of Russians or the Imperial Government to present any feature of its system which members exhibited any desire to understand. Apparently all was open and free for investigation by the foreign visitors.

PROGRESSIVE MOVEMENT IN RUSSIAN PRISON REFORM.

To present some of the advances in prison reform in Russia this outline is made:

At the beginning of the eighteenth century the prison system in Russia was absolutely barbarous. The ordinary punishments were death, transportation to Siberia, and various corporal punishments, with or without mutilation.

In the reign of Empress Elizabeth, 1741–1762, an official report relates the death of a prisoner by starvation, and states that one-thirtieth die from the same cause.

Empress Catherine II, 1762–1796, undertook to remedy this deplorable condition. In 1767 she organized a commission charged with preparing a new code of laws, and issued herself lengthy instructions to that body. She abolished mutilation, and proclaimed a principle new in Russian

legislation, that of reformation; that punishments chosen should be those which would make the most desirable impression on the mind and would be less cruel to the body. She declared that the death of the criminal would be less deterrent than long imprisonment, by which the prisoner could repair by his subsequent life the damage he had done to society.

The new laws organized the local management of prisons, and provided in each province a bureau of public charities, which was to establish houses of repression, destined for disorderly persons who might be confined by the courts, or by parents or masters. In 1783 workhouses were established. The duration of imprisonment was not fixed. By his labor the prisoner could repair the injury he had done, contribute to his own support, and shorten his term by good behavior. In 1787, under the inspiration of John Howard, Catherine II undertook, under her own hand, a plan for the improvement of prison management. In each province there was to be a prison, with three departments; the first for the accused, the second for those condemned for a term, and the third for those under sentence of death or for life; in the second were also to be those condemned to transportation. The accused and convicts were to be placed in cells, and the exiles in common. Labor was to be introduced for life prisoners and others. Priests were to visit the condemned and labor for their reformation. These were the first steps in prison reform in Russia; well planned but little executed under Catherine II.

Alexander I continued prison reform under the inspiration of another Englishman, a disciple of John Howard. This was Walter Venning, who by his influence induced the Government to establish the "Society for the Protection of Prisons," which existed until 1863, and was a very important factor in prison administration. It was composed of both sexes, who paid an annual subscription, and elected a president, who was approved by the Emperor. The declared object of the society was "to secure the moral reform of prisoners and to ameliorate their condition." An executive committee met at least monthly to discuss questions of interest to the society. It was purely a private association which supervised and assisted the administration of prisons, and by its counsels and pecuniary aid improved the régime. It especially aimed to classify the prisoners, to secure their improvement, and to organize labor. Afterwards the Government intrusted the feeding of prisoners to the executive committee, by which it attained a quasi-public position.

During the reign of Nicholas I, prison reform in Russia was materially advanced. A new criminal code was made and published, and among other things—

First. It discriminated between criminal and correctional punishments.

Second. It instituted a double scale of punishments, one of which was applied to those subjected to chastisement and named the others who

were exempt. The latter were the nobles, members of the clergy, honorable citizens, and merchants of the two highest guilds.

Third. The punishment by the knout, of Tartar origin, was suppressed. Sometimes an hour was exhausted in giving twenty blows of the knout. Often on the caprice of the executioner depended the life of the condemned.

Fourth. The corporal punishments retained, such as the rod, were to be only accessory to imprisonment.

The new prison regulations were published at the same time as the new code. They proclaimed the necessity of the moral reform of the condemned, by the separation of individuals susceptible of reform; by teaching trades, by organizing labor, and by moral instruction.

The death penalty was retained only for crimes against the person of the sovereign and the safety of the state. Confinement at hard labor was applied to the gravest crimes. However severe the punishment, it still favored the reformation of the convict, who, after a certain time, by good conduct, could pass into the reform division, receiving less severity in treatment. He no longer was to be in irons; could attend public festivals and be relieved from work; could earn money, and after a while, by permission, might marry and construct a house in the limits of the public workyards or near the mine or factory where he labored. This system contained the elements of conditional liberation.

The institution of correctional companies was another unique provision. Vagrants and the vicious and incorrigible who were held for reformation, as well as for punishment, were organized into companies, and were utilized by the State. Under orders and submitting to military commands they were employed in exterior work on forts, fortifications, etc.

The workhouses or houses of repression were for prisoners committed for 1 to 3 years, divided into three classes, according to age: First, those under 20 years; second, those 20 to 45 years; and third, those above 45 years. The régime was to some extent reformatory. For good conduct they were to receive part of their earnings.

In the prisons proper were received those sentenced for terms ranging from 3 months to 2 years. The prisoners of the two classes were lodged separately, the convicts being confined in cells. The men were separated from the women, minors from adults, and nobles and officers from the inferior classes. There was yet no reformatory discipline in these prisons. The system of transporting prisoners to Siberia had never been satisfactory. It was first established as a humane measure—as a substitute for the death penalty. The families of the condemned were allowed to go with them. The exiles suffered greatly by the long journey. In 1853 the prisons were so overcrowded that in order to diminish the numbers transportation was increased and given preference. Colonization was attempted and was very expensive. Houses built by the Government for families remained empty, and those constructed for single men

were the resort of brigands. "If you meet on the highroad," said an official report, "a man half naked, notwithstanding the frost and cold, emaciated by hunger, with countenance depressed, despair and resignation upon his features, know that he is a colonist." Escapes were frequent, and vagrancy among the exiles became a scourge. In 1882, in four districts, out of 20,199 exiles 7,375 were fugitives. The crimes the convicts committed exasperated the inhabitants, who treated them without pity. The number of vagrant exiles in Siberia was estimated at 40,000. The average number of exiles yearly was 10,000. The inhabitants of Siberia strongly objected to the system. They said that it "arrested the development of the country and inspired indifference for its welfare, and although rich in resources it remained backward more than any other country of the Orient." Colonization has been improved since then. The reign of Alexander II led to greater reforms in the penal system. The abolition of serfdom February 19, 1861, was the crowning glory of his reign. That act alone made its author illustrious.

In 1863 the following modifications were made in regard to punishments:

1. All corporal punishments supplementary to imprisonment were abolished.

2. Women were always to be exempt from corporal punishment.

3. The mark or brand was abolished.

4. Corporal punishment, as the main punishment, was replaced by imprisonment.

5. The law of 1853, for relieving the prisons, by substituting corporal punishment for imprisonment, was abolished.

6. The substitution of transportation for detention in the correctional companies was also abolished.

7. The maximum detention in correctional companies was reduced to 4 years, and imprisonment in houses of repression, workhouses, and fortresses was reduced one-third.

In 1862 Alexander II inaugurated a great reform, the separation of the judicial and executive departments of the government. The inquisitorial criminal procedure was abolished. No one was to be convicted except on a regular judicial trial.

The ukase of 1863 put all prisons under the direction of the minister of the interior. Houses of arrest and correctional asylums for young delinquents were to be established.

The houses of arrest were to be constructed, supported, and directed by the provincial states, which should receive from the government for this purpose the receipts from fines. The punishments in these houses were to consist of imprisonment with all alleviation possible. Leave of absence for three days was to be granted in case of the sickness of parents. The time spent on leave of absence was to be deducted from the term.

Correctional asylums for young delinquents were created by the provincial states or provinces, by private associations, or by individuals. The young prisoners were to receive primary instruction and some were to have an agricultural or industrial apprenticeship. In case of good conduct they could obtain conditional liberation. The administration of each establishment was to act as a prisoner's aid society or "patronage" society for discharged prisoners. In 1883 Russia had eleven asylums or colonies for young convicts with 600 inmates.

On the island of Saghalien, at the mouth of the Amoor River on the eastern coast of Siberia, Russia has established a prison depot to which she now sends many prisoners not confined in the local prisons. It is believed that this will in time displace banishment to Siberia.

Alexander II reorganized the transportation of prisoners on a more humane basis. In 1830 this branch of the service was barbarous. Loaded in irons, chained in couples, the convicts made the journey on foot, in all seasons, from the prisons of Russia to distant parts of Siberia; 2 years being occupied before the destination was reached, and the sufferings were untold. By improved methods the convicts were to go only in the summer and so far as practicable wagons, railroads, and steamboats were to be used.

In 1879 the following scale of punishments was established:

1. Transportation at hard labor for a long term or for life was continued.

2. Detention in a house of correction, the maximum to be six years, undergoing for a part of the time a cellular régime.

3. Imprisonment for one year with constant cellular régime and labor.

4. Confinement for three months in police stations or in houses of arrest.

In 1879 there was established a bureau known as the General Administration of Prisons, at the head of which is the able Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy. Under general instructions from the Imperial Government, to this body has been committed the vast and complex questions of prison reform as presented in the administration of the Russian prison system. To this commission the Government says:

> Acting under the scale of punishments as prescribed in 1879, it is expected that the General Administration of Prisons will put in operation measures which experience shall indicate, and which will reform and perfect the prison system of the country. To attain this result no precise programme has been indicated by the Government, but the final end shall be prison reform.

No more important step has been taken in Russia than in the formation of this bureau, and the world may look for a very material advance in this respect in Russia within the next few years. While changes may not be introduced with haste, they will be the outgrowth of experience and when made will be permanent.

It is impossible in this paper to relate all the modifications introduced. To facilitate the solution of delicate problems connected with correc-

tional education of young prisoners, the Government has instituted periodical conferences between the directors of juvenile establishments. Three of these conferences have taken place—one in Moscow in 1881, one at Kiew in 1884, and the third in Moscow in 1889.

These are some of the propositions submitted by the conferences:

1. Farm labor answers the purposes of correctional education better than learning trades; yet, on account of social conditions, it is desirable to establish correctional institutions of a mixed character.

2. Correctional education should aim to produce intelligent artisans, capable of producing complete articles.

3. Young prisoners should not receive compensation. On their discharge they should have a bounty for good conduct.

4. There may be admitted to the same establishment young delinquents of different religions.

5. Corporal punishments should be forbidden, with some exceptions.

6. There should not be discharged from prisons convicts who are profoundly corrupt and who appear refractory to all moral reform.

7. The patronage of discharged prisoners is indispensable.

The conference in Moscow in 1881 declared as follows:

1. The term of imprisonment of young delinquents in reformatories should be fixed, not by the courts, but by the administration of the institutions. This would be an indeterminate sentence.

2. The authority of parents who abuse their children should be limited.

3. The administration should accord to young prisoners temporary leave of absence.

4. It is necessary to interdict the transfer in common of young and adult prisoners.

Some other subjects received attention, and among them were:

1. The organization of prison labor, which question has been submitted to the council of the empire.

2. The establishment of a corps of special wardens receiving technical education.

3. The establishment of a system of local inspection of prisons.

This imperfect sketch of the history and tendencies of prison reform in Russia may serve to call attention to the better side of the system in that country, and if so it will accomplish its purpose.

By those who know the most of the history of Russia it is believed that no country in the past 100 years has made greater progress in civilization and especially in her prison system. Former commissions and able writers have produced a rich literature in penology, to which extended and valuable additions were made as contributions to the Fourth International Prison Congress. She has many able writers in penology, and the authors are gentlemen distinguished in social and political life. Prominent among them are Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, chief of the administration of Russian prisons and president of the commis-

sion of the Fourth International Prison Congress, and Count Sollohub, now deceased, who was one of the very first promoters, with our Dr. E. C. Wines, of the international prison congresses. Since 1874 one of the professors in the University of St. Petersburg gives annually a course of lectures on penitentiary science. The first agricultural colony or institution for juvenile delinquents was established in 1870 near St. Petersburg. Since then others have been organized in the various provinces, and they have the sympathy and support of the people. Industrial and reformatory schools at St. Petersburg, Moscow, and in the provinces are successfully managed. In the larger cities there are numerous asylums for children, vagrants, orphans, and mendicants After the age of 10 or 12 years they are taught trades. They are largely supported by private charity. The Russian people are characterized for their benevolence, and readily contribute. Patronage societies have been established for discharged prisoners. The importance of preventive and reformatory work seems to be already fully understood in this great nation, which so lately has entered into association and competition with the highest civilizations.

Some statistics relative to exile may be of interest. The Emperor is directly accountable for only a very few sent to Siberia. There are four classes of exiles: First, those sentenced to hard labor; second, penal colonists; third, those simply banished, and fourth, women and children, voluntary exiles.

The banished are: First, vagrants; second, banished by the courts; third, banished by the village communes or the village *mir*, and fourth, banished by order of the minister of the interior, the politicals. The political exiles do not average over 150 a year. In 1887 there were exiled politicals as follows:

Noble class:		
Men	50	
Women	17	
Children	4	
	—	71
Nonprivileged class:		
Men	70	
Women	18	
Children	6	
	—	94
Total		165

The theory of penal administration in Russia is a comparatively mild treatment for criminals convicted in court, and the severest treatment for politicals. This has especially been the attitude of the present Emperor. His great predecessor, who liberated the serfs, had already prepared a plan for a representative government. He had signed the document, which was to be immediately published. But like our great martyr, Lincoln, who had liberated four million slaves, he was struck down the next day by assassins, and his successor inaugurated the pol-

icy of crushing out the terrorists, no mercy to be shown. This brought in especial force the administrative process—a military trial with no jury. In all other cases the accused has in court the right of trial by jury. If banished he may be sent as a colonist, his family allowed to go with him, and he is furnished with a house, with land and seeds, and a year's subsistence. He can not return. The country he goes to is quite similar in climate to the one he leaves, and it is not so deadly as the colony for French exiles. In most American States we send the man to prison for a term of years and allow him no part of his earnings by which he might contribute to the support of his family, who often become destitute, and the children find their way into the almshouses and reformatories. Though we can not approve of transportation in any way, yet, so far as it affects family relations, it is in some respects superior to our general prison system. Since the assassination of Alexander II the administrative process for politicals has been in the nature of a military trial, a court martial. While as Americans we can not sanction a return to the star-chamber days of England, yet we can hope that if the Emperor succeeds in stamping out terrorism with an iron hand, he will, when he finds he can control the situation, reissue the great proclamation his august father prepared for the liberation of all his people, and in that way establish a representative government and guarantee trial by jury in all cases.

In general prison administration Russia claims a great advance in the last 10 years, under Mr. Wraskoy's management. This gentleman has recently published a report of the work for the period of 10 years 1879–1889, which appeared in St. Petersburg in 1890, in the French and Russian languages. Copies were presented to members of the congress. This work covers 210 royal octavo pages, and treats of the following subjects:

1. State of prison régime towards the end of the year 1870.
2. Measures relative to the constructive service of prison buildings.
3. Measures relative to prison administrations.
4. Measures relative to the economic service of prisons.
5. Measures destined to regulate the treatment of prisoners and the organization of prison work.
6. Measures relative to the régime of forced labor and transportation.
7. Measures relative to the transport service.
8. Measures relative to the sanitary service.
9. Measures relative to the expense of prison service and general considerations of the subject of such expenses.
10. Views of the future of the general administration of prisons.

This work shows in detail the new prisons constructed and the old ones repaired, claiming that all has been done that was possible in the financial condition of Russia succeeding the eastern wars of 1877 and 1879.

During the 10 years there has been expended, as stated in this report—

	Rubles.
For the organizing of new places of detention	4,431,004
For enlarging and reorganizing places of detention	2,962,870
For annual repairs of prisons	3,660,595
Total	11,054,469

If converted into American dollars this would be about $8,250,000.

The following appeared in the Journal de St. Petersburg at the time of the meeting of the congress, and it may be interesting to some to see how the press treats such subjects in that country:

La Gazette de St. Petersbourg [Russian] has inaugurated a series of articles on the International Prison Congress. Our colleague remarks that the Jurisprudence Society of our capital has, in view of the congress, elaborated many questions raised in the former congresses and presented here again. This is very interesting, not only in a theoretical but also in a practical view. Such, for example, is the report of M. Yadrintsew upon the substitution of imprisonment for transportation. This question was the order of the day with us for two years when our prison administration thought of abolishing transportation to Siberia. This project, elaborated at that time, was poorly received by the press, which extolled the humane character of transportation, and it ended by being put aside. The Jurisprudence Society has not the less declared resolutely against transportation. The basis of the contemporary system of punishments is detention. The report of M. Yadrintsew presents the conditions upon which imprisonment should rest to give it a reformatory character. Imprisonment, with the severity of its régime and forced labor, should not destroy human individuality nor deprive the prisoner of a hope for a better future.

Social science also resolutely declares against imprisonment for life. It excludes all hope for the recovery of liberty at some future day. The prisoner is looked upon as a pupil capable of improvement, who may pass through several grades of confinement, more or less severe, according to the advancement shown in good behavior and skill in the work assigned him.

In a contemporary social science point of view the ideal organization of imprisonment for a long term presents itself as follows: First, cellular confinement is imposed upon the prisoner when only punishment and not reformation is considered. This is to be followed by a period of congregate detention with labor in the shops, and prayers and lessons in common. In a sanitary point of view, work in the open air is recommended. When the prisoner shows moral improvement the greatest possible extension of open-air work should be given. After this, the cultivation of a lot set apart for his use should be given him near the prison. This might end by his liberation before the end of his term or a transfer to some philanthropic institution. In such a state of things, to maintain that transportation is humane, and the prison not, is to confound two ideas which have nothing in common between them. Transportation may be exemption from punishment disguised, while imprisonment, considered as a necessary result of the violation of law, may be beneficial in reviving in the meantime in the prisoner sentiments of goodness from which he has departed. Whatever in the end the result may be, we can not deny the elevated and humane aspirations of the contemporary penitentiary system. We are often charged with being too benevolent when the welfare enjoyed by the criminal is compared with the laborious poverty of the poor who have never committed crime. We can also discover that the educational character of existing prisons, mitigates too much the influences that should have a deterrent effect on the criminal. The congress of St. Petersburg will have more than one opportunity to discuss these questions.

Mr. Yadrintsew, in his report above named, sets forth strongly the views of the Jurisprudence Society on the subject of imprisonment for offenses requiring a long time in place of exile, and completes his essay with the following conclusions:

1. Imprisonment for a long term should include a system of reformatory education adapted to the persons to whom it is applied and the time for which they are confined. Consequently, in its organization it is necessary to conform to the general principles and details of education.

2. Prisoners condemned for life should be placed in the same prisons with those condemned for a long term, and should undergo the same régime, being always allowed the hope of liberation at some time in the future.

3. The progressive system is preferable for prisoners condemned for a long term.

4. The tendency to sedentary work appears to us to be exaggerated. Outside work ought to be introduced, especially for prisoners for a long term. Such work is entirely compatible with the interests of reformatory discipline, provided that the work be not public.

5. Private patronage for prisoners who are discharged after a long term, being insufficient, should be completed by official patronage.

The review of this report in the Gazette of St. Petersburg and again in the Journal of the same city, the discussion of the subject by the Society of Jurisprudence, through one of its members, is proof that the Russian people still discuss the merits of transportation and express opinions against it, as this distinguished society has.

Like all countries, Russia will work out its own great problems. The great transcontinental railway which is now under construction will reach from the capitals of the empire to the Pacific. Railroads, commerce, trade, civilization, and general progress introduced into the vast territory of Siberia, so unlimited in its agricultural and mineral resources, so diversified in soil, productions, and climate, will soon become too prosperous to be longer a penal colony. Such influences, if no other, will plant Siberia with homes instead of prisons.

SOME RUSSIAN PRISON STATISTICS.

The following is a list of Russian prisons and their average population in 1888:

EUROPEAN RUSSIA.

Prisons for long terms.

	Men.
Central prisons:	
Novobelgorod	275
Novoborissoglebsk	154
Iletsk	393
Reformatories:	
Archangel	686
Kichinew	173
Wilno	485
Wladimir	420
Wiazniki	309
Walogda	280

Prisons for long terms—Continued.

Reformatories—Continued.	Men.
Woronege	219
Wiatka	239
Taganrogue	114
Ekaterinoslaw	237
Kazaw	213
Kertch	68
Kiev	603
Kostroma	314
Kowsk	357
Moscow	205
Orel	405
Perm	320
Podolsk	195
Paltawa	281
Pskow	371
Riazan	283
St. Petersburg	520
Saratow	768
Simbirsk	349
Smolensk	297
Twer	274
Karkof	400
Kherron (No. 1273, No. 2516) and Iaroslaw	514

Prisons for short punishments; average population, 77,799; annual admissions, 590,714.

Institutions for young boys and girls.

For young boys:	
Hondzients, Warsaw	146
Kiev	63
Nigny-Novgorod	29
Sinebirsk	54
St. Petersburg	119
For girls:	
Moscow	114
Kazaw	40
Saratow	88
Karkof	51
Jaroslaw	25
Walogda	29
Balchew, Moscow	50

Establishments for detention, prevention, and for transportation.

Special prevention prisons (average population)	1,087
Depots of transfers (average population)	2,946
Annual admission	6,917

SIBERIA.

Establishments for a long term; average population.

Central prisons:	Men.
Alexandrovsk (Tobolsk No. 1653, No. 2299)	1,387
Mines of Nertchinsk:	
Algatchine and Pakrovsk	460
Zerentoni, Kadainsk, and Kontoniarsk	850
Kara	1,198
Forced labor prisons, factories:	
Irkootsk	83
Nikalaifsk	29
Oustkoutsk	16
Island of Saghalien	5,713
Special quarters for forced labor:	Women.
Irkootsk	61
Nikalaifsk	14
Oustkoutsk	15
Algatchine	14
Zerewtoni	37
Kara	477
Tymon	252
Korsakew	66
Hospital for convicts and exiles incapable of work:	Men.
Tobolsk	200
	Women.
Tomsk	289
Prisoners of short duration; average population, 7,801.	
Establishment for transfer service:	
Tomsk, average population, 1,729.	

RUSSIAN EUROPE.

Prison population.

Central prisons for men	858
Reformatories for men	10,645
Prisons for short term	79,462
Preventive prisons for men and women	1,050
Depots of transfers	3,295
Establishments for young boys and young girls:	
Girls—agricultural colonies	428
Industrial asylums	372
Young girls—industrial asylums	52

SIBERIA.

Forced labor prisons:	
Men	8,446
Women	900
Hospital for convicts and exiles, men and women	275
Correctional prisons, men	512
Prisons for short term, men and women	8,745
Depots of transfers	1,814

The statistics for 1873 are more clearly defined as follows: Places of detention January 1, 1883, were 832, with a population of 101,518, three establishments not reported. Received during the year, men 583,514; women, 88,236. There arrived in Siberia that year 13,003 exiles, as follows:

Convicts	2,140
Simple exiles	2,535
Exiled for vagabondage	1,607
Exiled recidivists	156
Individuals rejected by the Communes after conviction	4,707
Condemned by Persian associations to which they belonged	1,437
Transported by administrative order	421

In 1889 the prison service of European Russia had the following establishments: For long punishments, 3 central prisons and 31 reformatories. For short punishments, 626 prisons in the principal cities of the districts, 1,400 houses of arrest for prisoners convicted by justices of the peace, and 136 safety depots. For preventive detention and transportation, 3 special preventive prisons and 4 transfer depots. For young boys and young girls, 5 agricultural colonies. For young men private reformatories supervised by the general administrators of prisons, and 7 industrial asylums for young men in charge of the general administrators of prisons. Patronage institutions, 14 societies, having 88 committees and 568 sections.

Siberia in 1889: Prisons for a long term, 3 central prisons, 6 prisons in the mines of Nertchinsk, 3 factory prisons, 1 hospital for convicts and exiles incapable of work, 7 prisons on the islands of Saghalien, and 2 correctional establishments. Prisons for a short term, 36 prisons in chief towns of the districts. Transportation prisons, 1 depot of transfers and 92 *étape* or station houses.

IS PRISON REFORM NEEDED IN THE UNITED STATES?

The average American citizen has correctly an exalted opinion of his country and her institutions. Unless his attention is called to defects he sees none, and then scarcely acknowledges them. The prison system, if materially defective, in his opinion is good enough for the prisoner, and that an evil penitentiary system may increase pauperism and crime, paupers, criminals, and taxes is a subject he seldom considers as long as his business prospers and he is not personally affected. He is not aware that even in this great land the ratio of crime to the population has been on the increase many years. Nor does he know that the reason lies in corrupt methods. In keeping with the average citizen the average legislator gives little heed to the matter. As a result the General Government has no prison system, properly speaking. The nation has a criminal code and has provided punishments for the violation of its laws. There are constant trials and convictions for counterfeiting, smuggling, for violation of the revenue

laws, and for all offenses in the sole jurisdiction of the General Government. For the temporary or long confinement of prisoners the Government has no prisons excepting the military prison at Fort Leavenworth and three or four Territorial jails and the jail and workhouse in the District of Columbia. Before trial the prisoners are placed in the jails, and on conviction are distributed among the prisons or houses of correction in the several States. No heed is given to their reformation.

The Detroit house of correction has for years been one of the places for United States prisoners. Some States will not receive them and all now require compensation for their support. Should all the States refuse them the General Government would have no place for their detention, and the tendency seems that way.

In his report for 1889 the Attorney-General urges the establishment of a Government penitentiary and reformatory and the organization of a prison bureau. But under the present system the General Government does not construct or maintain prisons. The system is very simple. It arrests, tries, convicts, imprisons, and then abandons. It is the doctrine and practice of riddance. Like transportation simple, the convict is put out of the way and that is the end of it. All questions of reform, patronage, relapse into crime and the more important problems relative to the prevention of crime have no place in this system. There is little discussion in the Senate or House on prison systems or on means to prevent the increase of crime in greater ratio than the increase of population. In France, in England, and in the other great nations the ablest men in Parliament, Senate, or House of Deputies discuss ably and intelligently the great necessity of prison reform. The neglect of our nation in this respect does not relieve it of great responsibilities. There is need that Congress should discuss penitentiary science and adopt improvements in prisons and in prison discipline. It may well study this subject at home and abroad, wherever valuable information may be obtained. While in some respects this country is in advance of Europe in prison construction and management, in many others it is behind. Every nation may well study the methods of others.

This nation should set an example for the States. Every State has its own criminal code and the methods of punishment are wonderfully diversified. The same crime has various forms of punishment. There is no uniformity and no apparent effort to have any. In some States the prisons are constructed on the most approved models. Sanitary principles have been duly considered. Reformation has been given ample consideration and application. Appliances for prison labor by the State or by contract are supplied, and everything has been done that is practicable to insure the best prison management. In other States there are no prison buildings and no attempt at the reformation of prisoners. In those States, humanity and economy, which are inseparable, are wanting. While our people have been for years

reading the accounts of suffering attending the punishment of crimes in other countries, they forget that in our own there exists a system which rivals in severity that of any other. The convict-lease system, which prevails in Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina, Kentucky, Georgia, Texas, Alabama, Arkansas, Mississippi, and Louisiana, needs to receive the condemnation of a healthy public sentiment. The South, by her own distinguished son Geo. W. Cable has described the horrors of this system. His account in his address before the National Conference of Charities in Louisville in 1883 should be read by all. One other writer in that conference said that it was "a system worthy of the Dark Ages, a disgrace to humanity and to several States of this proud nation," and "should not be tolerated in a civilized land." In his conclusions Mr. Cable says:

1. That by the very ends for which it exists it makes a proper management of prisons impossible, and lays the hand of arrest upon reformatory discipline.
2. That it contents itself, the State, and the public mind with prisons that are in every way a disgrace to civilization.
3. That in practice it is cruelly brutal.
4. That it hardens, debases, and corrupts criminals; committed to it by law in order that, if possible, they may be reformed and reclaimed to virtue and society.
5. That it fixes and enforces the suicidal and inhuman error that the community must not be put to any expense for the reduction of crime or the reformation of criminals.
6. That it inflicts a different sentence upon every culprit that comes into its clutches from that which the law and the court has pronounced, so that there is not to-day a single penitentiary convict from the Potomac to the Rio Grande who is receiving the sentence really contemplated by the law under which he was condemned.
7. That it kills like a pestilence, teaches the people to be cruel, sets up a false system of clemency, and seduces the State into the committal of murder for money.
8. That in 2 years it permitted 1,100 prisoners to escape.

Under this system convicts are leased to private parties or companies for any number of years. Sometimes they are worked within or without the walls of the prison, quartered in camps, herded in stockades, and transferred from place to place with a military guard; the oldest and boys under 18 herded together day and night. Prisoners are frequently sentenced for 15, 20, 30, 40, or 50 years, and it is seldom that any survive 10 years of this brutal slavery in prison or in the convict camp. But one should read Mr. Cable's paper. Its burning words should secure early reform. In the States where the best systems prevail there is need of improvement. In one like Michigan, the most radical preventive system is established by the education of dependent children and their early placement in families. With a population of over 2,000,000, there are only a few over 200 dependent children to be cared for by the State, in the State public school at Coldwater, at a cost of about $35,000 per annum. There is in that State only 1 child to 10,000 people to be cared for by the public in this school and only about 75 diseased or feeble-minded in the poorhouses.

By contrast, take the State of New York, which boards its dependent

children in sectarian asylums. There were by the official reports of 1887 in that State the great number of 20,205 dependent children—one in every 263 of the population and supported at an expense of over $2,000,000. Other as remarkable instances could be given. In one State the prisons are self-supporting, while in others they are a burden upon the taxpayers. In some there are serious attempts to reform prisoners. In others there is no such effort. In a few there are patronage societies; in most of them none. In some the contract system prevails. In others it is prohibited by the Constitution. In most of the States the Governor is unlimited in the pardoning power; in others he is limited or the power is given to a commission. The same crime is variously punished. One State hangs for murder, another imprisons for life, while another has experimented in execution by electricity.

There never has been any attempt to secure a uniform code for the States. There never has been any convention from the various States for that purpose, though its utility is apparent.

Is it not time that the nation should set a worthy example for the States? When we consider the variety of prison systems in America, the perfection of some and the great imperfection of others, and the lack of a prison system by the General Government, it would seem that there is good reason why our government should investigate further at home and abroad all that pertains to the subject. Other countries have much to learn and much to impart, and so have we. The International Prison Congress, vast in its resources for valuable information, may well be resorted to by any country to impart and to receive. There are some American reformatories and prisons of a high grade, and there are distinguished gentlemen connected with their management who have a national and international reputation as specialists in social science. The National Prison Association has for many years been a powerful factor in this country in prison reform; and the National Conference of Corrections and Charities has also been a great force in the same field, and especially in the promotion of measures for the prevention of crime. These agencies have done much to advance prison reform, and will continue to do so.

It is gratifying to note the effort made in our present Congress for a national prison system. The bill which early in the session 1889–90 passed the House of Representatives provides for three national prisons, one north and one south of the thirty-ninth degree of north latitude and east of the Rocky Mountains, and one west of the Rocky Mountains, at a cost of $1,600,000, including $100,000 for workshops. Provision is made for commutation for good behavior and for separation of the younger from the older convicts. These prisons would hold the present number of convicts. By the report of the Attorney-General for the year ending June 30, 1889, there were received that year, 1,083 prisoners. The total number in custody during that year was 2,307 and there were then in different prisons and reformatories throughout the United States

1,202. At present, this would furnish about 400 for each prison. But in the past 25 years, the population of this nation has doubled and will increase rapidly, so that in prison construction the future demands must be considered.

If these prisons are constructed, we may well consider the experience of other nations, not only in adaptation, but in economy. It is doubtful whether a more interesting precedent can be quoted than that of the great prison of Wormwood Scrubs, near London. It has 1,400 cells for 1,400 prisoners, and for the purpose, is well adapted and is an institution of the first order. Its economy comes from the fact that it was built by convict labor. About 600 were employed. The average cost per cell in other prisons has been about $700. The cost per cell of Wormwood Scrubs was about $200.

The first step was to construct a high temporary inclosure of planks. In this the prisoners labored under guards. This English experience might be of value in America.

By the bill referred to, the Attorney-General and the Secretary of the Interior are to select locations for the three prisons and supervise their erection. The management of the prisons is to be vested in the Attorney-General, who shall appoint the superintendent and other officers and who shall establish rules for the government of the prisons. The act is not to apply to such minors, as, in the opinion of the Judge, should be committed to reformatories. Good conduct is to shorten the term of imprisonment, but not to exceed two months in each year. Convicts under 20 years of age are to be kept separate from others, and their treatment is to be reformatory. The prisoners are not to be worked outside the prison inclosure and they are to be employed exclusively in the manufacture of Government supplies. There are other operating provisions.

With the enactment of this measure, this Government will have inaugurated a prison system of its own which may furnish a model to the States in prison construction, discipline, and management. When the Pennsylvania and Auburn systems were adopted this country was in advance of Europe in prison construction. These systems were adopted in Europe, and have been generally commended, but within the past few years, under the impetus given by the International Prison Congress, there have been marked advances in construction and management in Europe, and America must act if she continues in the advance.

The following resolutions were adopted by the board of directors of the National Prison Association, held in Nashville, in November, 1889:

Resolved, That it is the sense of the National Prison Association that the wholesome administration of justice, and the proper care of criminals and of the criminal classes in the States and nation, demand that the Congress of the United States at an early date create and establish a "Prison Bureau," under the Department of Justice, with sufficient appropriation to operate the same. Said bureau to collect, collate, and publish criminal and prison statistics and information from all sources, and to register all criminals by the Bertillian system of identification.

Whereas the Government of the United States is now compelled to confine its prisoners arrested, indicted, tried, convicted, and sentenced by the United States authorities, in the different State penitentiaries and reformatories throughout the country because it has no reliable prisons of its own and therefore no direct control over its own convicts: Therefore,

Be it resolved by the National Prison Association in congress assembled at Nashville, Tenn., That we do favorably commend for the action of the United States, prisons situated at convenient centers.* This association hereby pledges to the Department of Justice a hearty coöperation in every step taken to bring about this result.

There is one evil in the diversified prison systems of this country that substantially prevails in all; and that is political control. Generally, when there is a change of parties in a State, there is a change also in the managers of State institutions, employés even as well as in boards of control. Each time there is a change, the experienced warden, superintendent, or employé must retire and the place is filled by a favorite of the appointing power. Each time there is a change, inexperience takes the place of experience, and the good management, discipline, and economy are put in peril and usually with loss to the State. When politics do not control State institutions; when every principle of prison discipline and prison reform is perfected; when all questions regarding prison reformation, labor, diet, and patronage are satisfactorily answered; when prison architecture, its forms and economy, are fully demonstrated and established; when the most certain way of saving dependent and abandoned children from vice, crime, and poverty has been fully determined, then America will need no prison reform; for then few, if any, prisons or prisoners will exist. The prison problem in America is by no means fully settled. The various experiments and experiences in the various States fully demonstrate this. Take, for instance, the question of the prison contract system and mark the variety of opinion regarding it in New York, the Empire State. In 1888 the contract system was abolished. The New York Tribune in January last said:

> At this age of the world in this imperial State, than which none is supposed to be more enlightened, it ought to have been impossible for so wretched a measure to have reached the statute book.

By it, the convicts were thrown out of employment, the death rate and the insanity rate reached the highest ever known. Besides this, there was great financial loss. The prisons, instead of being self-supporting as they have been, with a surplus on hand for some years, showed a deficit in 1888 of $153,924.46 and in 1889 of $369,274.25. In 1889, the act of 1888 was repealed and a system of labor for the State adopted, which, it is expected, will operate better.

Aside from the prevailing prison system of the South, the average method of dealing with pauperism and crime in this country is probably in advance of others. But when we consider that the ratio of the increase of pauperism and crime is greater than that of the population, that while some States are making great advance in solving the social

* A law for this purpose has since been enacted by the Congress of 1890-'91.

questions others are making no successful endeavor in that direction, is it not well that the legislature should ponder well these things and seek to obtain a more perfected penal system, even in America? By the encouragement given the investigations in penitentiary science, by the General and State governments; by conferences between experienced and practical prison officials, in national and international conventions, and by the adoption of humane, reasonable, and economic methods our people should be, where destiny has placed them, always in the advance.

THE HISTORY OF PRISON CONGRESSES.

THE FIRST MOVEMENTS.

The present system of international prison congresses is of American origin and owes its existence to the late E. C. Wines, D. D., LL. D. The name of Dr. Wines is the symbol of prison reform and is familiar to social scientists in all civilized countries. His history is that of prison reform in this country and Europe for the past quarter of a century. What John Howard was in presenting the thrilling facts relative to prisons, Dr. Wines was in applying the principles of penitentiary science. It was he who conceived, planned, and carried out successfully the international prison congresses of London and Stockholm and made those of Rome and St. Petersburg possible and successful. While he attributed equal credit to others it is quite certain that those congresses would never have been held—that we would never have had the rich penitentiary literature they have afforded—had not our countryman, Dr. Wines, conceived and executed them. And these congresses being of American origin, there is more reason that our Government should continue its interest in them.

The first international prison congresses were mainly European, and the opening one was held in 1845 at Frankfort-on-the-Main. It consisted of eighty members. The United States, England, France, Italy, Prussia, and some other countries were represented. This congress adopted a resolution favoring cellular imprisonment, the revision of penal codes, and the establishment of patronage societies. The following year a second congress was held in Brussels at which over two hundred members were present. The session continued three days and the discussions were able and interesting. The conclusions of this congress gave evidence of advanced thought in penitentiary science and were as follows:

That it is essential that houses of correctional education for young delinquents, on the system of temporary individual confinement, should be established, having also the privilege of placing the said young culprits in agricultural colonies with authority to bind them out to good, honest farmers and mechanics through patronage societies; that the interior service of prisons should be intrusted to agents well prepared for the discharge of their duties by a sort of apprenticeship or special training therefor; and that religious or philanthropic patronage societies should also give their help to reform the penitentiary system.

An international congress of philanthropy was held in Brussels in 1856, and doing no business adjourned to meet in Frankfort-on-the-Main in 1857. This congress was well attended from different countries. The proceedings formed two volumes. The conclusions adopted covered a wide field, favoring the cellular system for both short and long terms, even at first for young delinquents, the institution of farm colonies for old or invalid convicts, the abolishment of corporal punishment and public labor, uniform methods of prison management, the establishment of intermediate prisons between strict imprisonment and conditional discharge, the publication of prison reports, etc.

THE LONDON INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS.

After this congress there were formed local national associations, but there was no further effort in Europe for an international congress. The new movement came from the west, from America. It grew out of a correspondence between Count Sollohub, of Russia, and Dr. Wines. The count was "president of the commission for penitentiary reform in Russia," a government position. There is an extended outline of the Russian system prepared by the Count in the report of the London congress. The count suggested that the Prison Association of New York, of which Dr. Wines had long been secretary, should take the initiative in organizing an international congress. Dr. Wines submitted to that association the proposition of the count, but the association did not deem it expedient to act.

The friends of the movement did not, however, cease to promote it. As a preliminary measure to carry out the purpose there was held at Cincinnati a "national congress" for conference on criminal punishment and reformatory treatment, in the autumn of 1870. There were over two hundred delegates in attendance, representing nearly every State. The Hon. R. B. Hayes, then Governor and since President, was president of the convention. There were present heads of prisons and reformatories, members of their boards, members of prison societies and their officials, etc. The sessions continued a week. Thirty-eight papers were read and 37 declarations of principles were adopted. In its organization and successful management Dr. Wines was the ever-present moving power.

This convention took up the subject of an international prison congress and placed upon Dr. Wines the duty of organizing it. It was deemed best that the congress should have a national and governmental character, and to that end, that Congress should be invited to coöperate by affording material aid. Through the influence of Dr. Wines Congress passed a joint resolution authorizing the President to appoint a commissioner to represent the United States in the proposed international prison congress and made an appropriation for the purpose. Dr. Wines was appointed by President Grant to be such commissioner with the understanding that he should visit Europe a year in advance to

make due preparations and to enlist the various European governments in the enterprise. The Secretary of State also addressed a letter to the United States diplomatic and consular representatives, asking them to aid the commissioner in his work. By correspondence and personal interviews, representation was secured from all the governments of Europe except Portugal. Brazil, several South American republics, and a number of the American States sent delegates. The congress was called to be held in London in July, 1872. There were between 80 and 100 official delegates and among them were many noted specialists in penitentiary science. There were also a large number of delegates from prison societies, jurists, and heads of penal and reformatory institutions; the Institute of France was also represented. There were in all about 400 members of the Congress. It was a remarkable gathering. Lord Carnarvon was president of the congress and the Prince of Wales was present. The British secretary of state for the home department delivered the address of welcome. The official report is contained in an octavo volume of 800 pages, forming a contribution to prison literature unique, able, and interesting.

The Right Hon. Austin H. Bruce, M. P., Her Majesty's secretary of state for the home department, attended the congress and gave an official welcome to the members. In the course of his address he said:

It is a great satisfaction to me that it has not been any increase of crime in this country that led the congress to assemble here, and I hope that the delegates from abroad will be able to give an account of such diminution of crime in their countries as has been experienced in this. It is to me not only a matter of congratulation, but of deep thankfulness, that in the face of many apparent reasons for a contrary condition of things, there has been of late years, in this country, an extraordinary diminution of serious crime. The system of transportation of our criminals to other countries has now entirely ceased, and it might have been expected that the prisoners, who since that cessation of transportation have been turned loose in this country, would return to their old associations. But instead of there being an increase, there has not only been a decrease of crime relatively to the increased population, but a decrease in all the graver classes of crime. * * * The efforts of those who have instituted industrial schools, reformatories, penitentiaries, discharged prisoners' aid societies, and similar institutions of that character, have prevented the relapse of a vast number of criminals; and the diffusion of knowledge among the people and the spread of education have enabled people to distribute themselves over the world, and to avoid, to some degree, the conditions leading to crime. All these influences have doubtless much to do with the diminution of crime, which is always found to be most frequent in overpopulated districts. * * * I desire to give the delegates every facility for becoming thoroughly acquainted with the English system of prisons, and I trust that the able and distinguished gentlemen who have honored this country with their presence will visit the convict establishments and thoroughly examine the system, and will fearlessly and openly express their opinion upon it. The government desires not panegyric, but intelligent criticism, so that the system may be brought to the highest possible point of improvement. I desire to convey to the members of the congress the thanks of the government and my high appreciation of their coming to England and the spirit in which they have undertaken their task.

The address of the president of the congress, the Right Hon. the Earl of Carnarvon, was of considerable length, outlining the purposes of the

congress as well as the condition of the penal and reformatory institutions of the country. In speaking of the character and objects of the congress he said:

Its object is to gather information, to compare the different prison systems of different countries, to discuss the principles and details on which these systems are based, and to arrive, if possible, at some general conclusions. Its history is the history of a remarkable agreement by the peoples and governments of many civilized countries on a subject which they have justly considered important. * * * Almost every European state has given its support. France, though embarrassed by a hundred domestic difficulties, has found time to further our objects; Italy, not unmindful of her great jurists and writers on criminal reform, takes part; Belgium has accredited one of her most distinguished statesmen to the congress; Holland, with that sound sense which we delight to believe is a common quality of her people and ours, is interested in our objects; Switzerland, Denmark, all-inquiring, all-embracing Germany, lastly the United States, which by numerous experiments have contributed so much to the common stock of our knowledge, drawing with them from the other side of the Atlantic the South American States, have all appointed envoys and have accepted England as the place of meeting and discussion. * * * In approaching the subject of our future discussions I shall not, I hope, be out of place if I offer from this chair to the many and distinguished guests whom we are happy to see among us our heartiest welcome.

The president stated that the order of business would be:

First. Criminal law procedure and preventive police.

Second. The punishment of the criminal.

Third. His treatment when discharged.

In other words, the course to be pursued towards the criminal before, during, and after his committal to prison—a wide inquiry, and one from which diverge in no illogical connection many tempting by-paths and curious speculations.

Among the many interesting papers were the following by American writers: The Penal and Reformatory System of Maryland, by G. S. Griffith; The Prevention of Juvenile Crime in Large Cities, by Rev. C. L. Brace; Crimes of Passion and Crimes of Reflection, by J. B. Bittinger, D. D.; Prisoners and their Reformation, by Z. R. Brockway; John Howard, His Life and Character, by Rev. H. W. Bellows, D. D.

The questions discussed at the London congress were as follows:

1. What ought to be the maximum number of prisoners or convicts detained in any prison?

2. Ought classification of prisoners according to character to be considered as the principal basis of any penitentiary system?

3. Should the prison system be regulated by legislation?

4. Ought corporal punishment to be admitted in the disciplinary code of a penitentiary system?

5. What should be the kind and limit of instruction for reformatory treatment applied to convicts?

6. Ought training schools for prison officers to be formed, and for what class of officers?

7. Ought transportation to be admitted as a punishment? If so, what ought to be its nature?

8. Ought imprisonment to be uniform, differing only in length, or ought several kinds differing in denomination and discipline to be admitted? In the latter case what kinds are to be admitted?

9. Ought imprisonment, without labor and without contact with other prisoners, to be admitted for special crimes not implying great perversity?

10. Is it possible to replace short imprisonments and the nonpayment of fines by forced labor, without privation of liberty?

11. Ought any kind of imprisonment to be imposed for the time of natural life?

12. What is the best mode of giving remission of sentences and regulating conditional discharges?

13. Is the supervision of discharged prisoners desirable? If so, what are the most efficient means of accomplishing it?

14. Ought prisoners on reconviction to be subjected to more severe disciplinary treatment than on their first sentence?

15. Should prison labor be merely penal, or should it be industrial?

16. How far should the visiting justices or boards of prison managers control the administration of prisons?

17. Ought the government of prisons to be placed wholly in the hands of one central authority?

18. What is the treatment likely to be the most effective for the reformation of juvenile offenders?

19. Is it desirable to establish international penitentiary statistics? And, if so, how may this be accomplished?

20. What is the best mode of giving aid to discharged prisoners?

21. What is the best means of securing the rehabilitation of prisoners?

22. What are the best means of repressing criminal capitalists?

23. Ought penitentiary systems to exclude all kinds of corporal punishment?

24. What ought to be the maximum of imprisonment, cellular or otherwise, for terms less than life?

25. What ought to be the treatment of prisoners before conviction?

26. Is it in the interest of the prevention and repression of crime that treaties of extradition should be concluded between civilized nations?

27. In addition to the above, penitentiary systems were discussed on the report of M. Victor Bounat, the distinguished specialist and author. The penitentiary systems of Great Britain, India, and the United States, women's work in prison, and aid to prisoners in Holland were discussed.

The general management of the London congress was in the hands of an executive international committee of nineteen, representing as

many different nations, of which Mr. G. W. Hastings, of England, was chairman. This committee made a unanimous report through the chairman. Part of this report is given below, as it throws much light on the object of these prison congresses and indicates the unity of views of representatives of various countries on some of the leading questions in penitentiary science:

The international committee congratulates the members of the congress on the success which has attended this first effort to bring together representatives from the various countries of the world for the collection of information and for the discussion of questions relating to prison discipline. * * * The committee did not think it advisable that votes should be taken on matters of opinion which were discussed in the sections. * * * But it had from the first resolved that it would endeavor to formulate in this report the prevalent views enunciated in the congress, to express the spirit of the meeting, not on matters of detail, but as to some of the leading principles which lie at the root of a sound prison discipline, and which must animate any system, whatever its nature, which is effective for the reformation of the prisoner and the consequent repression of crime.

Recognizing as the fundamental fact that the protection of society is the object for which penal codes exist and the treatment of criminals is devised, the committee believes that this protection is not only consistent with, but absolutely demands the enunciation of the principle that the moral regeneration of the prisoner should be the primary aim of prison discipline. To attain this aim, hope must always be a more powerful agent than fear; and hope should therefore be constantly sustained in the minds of prisoners by a system of rewards for good conduct and industry, whether in the shape of diminution of sentence, a participation in earnings, a gradual withdrawal of restraint, or an enlargement of privilege. A progressive classification of prisoners should, in the opinion of the committee, be adopted in all prisons.

In the treatment of criminals all disciplinary punishments that inflict unnecessary pain or humiliation should be abolished; and the penalties for prison offenses should, so far as possible, be the diminution of ordinary comforts, the forfeiture of some privilege, or a part of the progress made towards liberation. Moral forces and motives should in fact be relied on, so far as consistent with the due maintenance of discipline; and physical force should be employed only in the last extremity. But in saying this the committee is not advocating unsuitable indulgence, which it believes to be as pernicious as undue severity. The true principle is to place the prisoner, who must be taught that he has sinned against society and owes reparation, in a position of stern adversity, from which he must work his own way out by his own exertions. To impel a prisoner to this self-exertion should be the aim of a system of prison discipline, which can never be truly reformatory, unless it succeeds in gaining the good will of the convict. Prisoners do not cease to be men when they enter the prison walls, and they are still swayed by human motives and interests. They must therefore be dealt with as men—that is as beings who possess moral and spiritual impulses as well as bodily wants.

Of all reformatory agencies religion is the most important, because it is the most powerful in its action upon the human heart and life. Education has also a vital effect on moral improvement and should constitute an integral part of any prison system. Steady, active, and useful labor is the basis of sound discipline, and at once the means and test of reformation. Work, education, and religion are consequently the three great forces on which prison administration should rely. But to carry out these principles individualization becomes essential; prisoners, like other men, must be treated personally, and with a view to the peculiar circumstances and mental organization of each. The committee need not say that to carry out such views prison officers are required who believe in the capacity of prisoners for reformation, and who enter heartily into that work. They should, as far as possible, receive a special

training for their duties, and should be organized in such a gradation of rank, responsibility, and emolument as may retain experience and efficiency in the service and lead to the promotion of the most deserving.

But if a sound system of prison discipline be desirable, it is no less expedient that the prisoner, on his discharge, should be systematically aided to obtain employment and to return permanently to the ranks of honest and productive industry. For this purpose a more comprehensive system than has yet been brought to bear seems to be desirable.

Nor can the committee omit to say that it is in the field of preventive agencies, such as general education, the establishment of industrial and ragged schools, and other institutions designed to save children not yet criminal but in danger of becoming so, that the battle against crime is, in a great degree, to be won. In this, as in the general question of the reclamation of the guilty and erring, the influence of women devoted to such work is of the highest importance, and the committee rejoices that this congress has had the advantage of the presence and counsel of many ladies whose practical acquaintance with prisons and reformatories has given weight to their words and whose example furnishes hope for the future.

Lastly, the committee is convinced that the systems of criminal statistics now in force stand in urgent need of revision. Greater uniformity should be secured and means taken to insure a higher standard of accuracy and trustworthiness in this branch of the statistics of the different countries.

For this purpose the committee has appointed Dr. Wines (chairman), M. Beltrani-Scalia (secretary), Dr. Frey, Dr. Guillaume, G. W. Hastings, Esq., Baron von Holtzendorff, M. Loyenson, M. Pols, Count Sollohub, and Mr. Stevens an international committee to communicate with the various governments and to draw up a uniform scheme of action.

Several speeches were made in support of the report, and among the speakers was the venerable and talented Miss Mary Carpenter, of international reputation, who said:

It is impossible to comprehend the very great importance of this congress. It inaugurated absolutely a new era in the history of civilization, and acknowledged that those who had hitherto been excluded from society were to be regarded a part of society and to be restored to it.

The words of the committee will have more force when it is remembered that the report was unanimously adopted by the delegates representing Austria, Baden, Bavaria, Belgium, Brazil, Chili, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Holland, Italy, Mexico, Norway, Prussia, Russia, Saxony, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, and the United States of America.

This congress created a permanent international penitentiary commission with Dr. E. C. Wines as president, and Mr. Beltrani-Scalia, of Italy, secretary, and eight other members. This committee, as appears by an account of a subsequent meeting in Bruschal, was composed of Dr. Wines, president; Mr. Beltrani-Scalia; Almquist, of Sweden; Brum, of Denmark; Ekert, of Germany; Walli, of Baden; Dr. Guillaume, of Switzerland; Baron von Holtzendorff, of Bavaria; Loyenson and Petersen, of France; Pols, of Holland; Count Sollohub, of Russia; Mr. Stevens, of Belgium; Dr. Frey, of Austria, and Mr. Hastings, of England.

It is claimed that the London congress had a marked influence and was soon followed by improvements in prison reform in various countries. Between the holding of the London and Stockholm congresses, Germany adopted a new penal code, and prison reform was earnestly studied throughout the empire. In Holland the cellular system made progress. Belgium steadily pursued the establishment of the cellular régime in her prisons. In England additional prisoners' aid societies were established, a deeper interest in penitentiary questions was aroused, and a sensible diminution of crime was noticeable. Prison reform advanced in Switzerland. Some cantons adopted new penal codes. The progressive system of imprisonment was adopted in some cantons. In Italy three agricultural penitentiary colonies were established, and a training school for prison officers was opened in Rome. Denmark adopted the progressive system of imprisonment. In Sweden a normal school for educating prison officers was established in connection with the prison at Langhölem, near Stockholm, and an agricultural colony was founded after the pattern of that at Mettray. These and other movements in Europe and America of the same kind may be directly traced to the influence of the London congress. Above all, by its papers and discussions, published and circulated throughout the world, it has had and continues to have a great influence in directing prison reform and in educating public opinion. This congress demonstrated by its discussions and by the presence and labors of its distinguished members that the true aim of prison reform was not to excuse crime or indulge criminals, but to establish methods by which crime and criminals can be reduced and the great burdens they entail on society can be lessened.

THE INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS IN STOCKHOLM.

The International Penitentiary Commission appointed Stockholm as the place for the next congress to be held in 1878, and named Dr. Wines as its honorary president. The following correspondence touching the selection of Stockholm will be read with interest:

GRAND HOTEL,
Stockholm, September 4, 1875.

His Majesty OSCAR II,
King of Sweden and Norway:

SIRE: If I venture to address myself directly to your Majesty, it is because I have long known of the warm sympathy and active labors of your illustrious father, Oscar I, in the cause of prison reform, and, more recently, your Majesty's personal interest in the same great problem, a problem worthy to engage the study of rulers and statesmen as well as of philanthropists and Christians.

The published works and personal efforts of the late King Oscar I, which are well known and highly appreciated in my country, are not among the least effective agencies which have given of late so strong an impulse to prison reform, not only in Sweden but throughout the civilized world. Among the qualities and achievements which have given to your Majesty's august father a title to the remembrance and gratitude of posterity, few hold a higher place than the labors to which reference has just been made.

As president of the International Penitentiary Commission created by the congress in London in 1872, I have been instructed to confer with the Swedish Government, and especially with your Majesty as the head of the Government, with reference to holding the next international congress at the capital of Sweden. The commission was moved to make choice of this country for the approaching congress by several considerations: First, because they knew the profound interest taken formerly by your Majesty's illustrious father, and now by your Majesty, in the questions which the congress will be called together to consider; second, because they felt assured that the penitentiary institutions of Sweden are already well advanced, and that the Swedish Government is earnestly studying the penitentiary question, and is intent upon wise and solid reforms; and third, because they were persuaded, not only that the Government and people of Sweden and Norway would be in hearty sympathy with the objects and labors of the congress, but that there would be inspiration in the very air of the country where successive sovereigns have been so conspicuous and so active in the study and promotion of prison discipline and reform.

Under the instructions given by my colleagues and for the reason briefly stated above, I venture to ask that your Majesty and your Majesty's Government will consent to receive into your splendid capital and country the second International Congress for the study of penitentiary reform, which has been definitely fixed for 1877. [Changed to 1878.]

I have the honor to be, with profound respect, your Majesty's most obedient servant,

E. C. WINES,

President of the International Penitentiary Commission and Commissioner of the United States to the International Prison Congress.

To this communication the following answer was returned:

STOCKHOLM, *September* 14, 1875.

E. C. WINES, Esq.:

I am directed by his Majesty the King to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 4th instant, and to inform you that it affords his Majesty great satisfaction to learn that the International Penitentiary Commission has selected Stockholm for the holding of the next prison congress in 1877. His Majesty, who takes great interest in the success of the generous undertaking to which the commission has devoted itself, is pleased to assure you that the Swedish and Norwegian Governments will use their best endeavors to facilitate the labors of the congress, by opening to them all available sources of information.

I avail myself of this opportunity to assure you, sir, of my distinguished consideration.

O. W. BJÖRNTSJERNA,

Minister of Foreign Affairs.

This correspondence recalls the invitation also extended in the National Prison Congress held in New York, in 1876, by Mr. Meijerberg, of the Royal Commission of Sweden to the International Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia, to the members of the convention. Among other things he said:

Mr. PRESIDENT: It is known that there is to be an international prison reform congress in Stockholm one year from next August. I can, on behalf of my countrymen, assure you a hearty welcome. Certainly it is a long voyage to Sweden, but it is the saying of one of our famous old Swedish poets that—

"Short is the way to a friend, albeit he dwells afar." * * *

I can assure you that our popular and high-minded King, with every cultivated man in Sweden, wishes to see there as many good citizens of the United States of America as possible. You will not have much to learn in our country. What we

have to show you is, how a people in the mountains, under the drawback of a hard climate, after perpetual wars during three centuries, are endeavoring to conquer with the plow and the spade what they have lost by the sword. I said it is a hard climate, but it is not so cold in Sweden as you would imagine when you know that Sweden is situated in the same latitude as Labrador and Greenland. The reason is, that the warm Gulf Stream washes the coast of Scandinavia, and as that is the case in the physical world, so it is in the moral world, for many warm streams of thought and ideas have flowed to us from the New World. Through you we have learned political and religious freedom. From you we have taken that system of humanity in the treatment of prisoners, which is called the Pennsylvania system, introduced in our country many years ago by our present King's father, who wrote a book on that subject. * * * In conclusion, I thank you for what I have seen and learned here, and once more assure you that you will receive next summer a hearty welcome on your visit to the country of Gustavus Adolphus and Linnæus.

The learned gentleman addressed the convention in English, and was warmly applauded.

The International Penitentiary Commission made due arrangements for the Stockholm Congress. In determining the line of work, it avoided in the programme, as far as possible, speculative and theoretical discussions. The programme contained a number of practical questions of general interest, and reporters were appointed in various countries to submit written papers thereon, to be published and submitted at the opening of the congress. In the meeting of the commission in Paris, in June, 1878, reporters were appointed on all the questions of the programme to open and close the discussions. At this meeting Dr. Guillaume, of Switzerland, was made secretary-general of the congress. He presented the regulations for the International Commission which he and Mr. Holtzendorff had elaborated. It was also decided that the members of the commission and other official delegates should meet in Stockholm before the opening of the congress to take any final measures necessary, and especially to discuss the proposed regulations.

The Government of Sweden made various arrangements for the meeting of the congress, which was finally fixed for August 20, 1878. The Government also sent to all other states the invitation to send representatives to the congress, and appointed a local committee to take necessary steps for its reception.

To meet the expenses of this reunion the Government appropriated 20,000 crowns—something over $5,000.

In conformity to previous arrangement, the members of the commission and official delegates met at Stockholm, August 15. The sessions of the commission from August 15 to 29 were interesting, but space can not be given here for even an outline. The regulations which appear elsewhere herein were adopted at that time. At these meetings it was announced by M. Almquist, inspector-general of Swedish prisons, that the Government had placed the Palace of the Nobility at the disposition of the congress for its sessions, and had appointed the Palace of the Diet for the meetings of the local committee; that some young

gentlemen acquainted with modern languages had been engaged by the local committee to act as secretaries; that an industrial exposition had been organized at the women's prison at Normalm; and that to facilitate friendly relations between members of the congress, the halls of the Hotel Rydberg had been chosen for social evening meetings. He further announced that the city of Stockholm would tender a banquet to the foreign members, August 22; that the King, who was then in Norway, would return August 24 to give at the Chateau of Drottningholm a festival to the members of the congress, and that it was very probable that the King would then attend the session of the congress and would, if desired, give audience to members; that at the close of the congress the Swedish members would tender a farewell banquet at the Grand Hotel. In closing his announcement M. Almquist said:

On behalf of the local committee and of Sweden, I extend to you a cordial welcome, and desire that you will have no reason to regret your long voyage and all the troubles you have undergone in coming here.

This high official and distinguished specialist has been dead some years, to the great loss of his country and social science.

The following table is of special interest, showing the sums contributed by various governments for the expenses of the congress and commission. It was presented by the secretary.

	Population.	Subscription.
		Francs.
Germany	41,010,150	1,025
Austria	20,136,283	503
Hungary	15,508,575	388
Belgium	5,253,821	131
Denmark	2,000,000	50
Spain	24,236,490	606
United States	38,925,598	973
France	40,940,120	1,024
Italy	26,801,154	670
Norway	1,795,000	45
Netherlands	4,000,000	100
Portugal	5,400,000	135
Argentine Republic	2,000,000	50
Russia	76,500,000	1,912
Sweden	4,341,559	109
Switzerland	2,669,147	67

OPENING OF THE CONGRESS.

The Stockholm Congress opened August 22, 1878, in the palace of the Order of the Nobility.

His excellency de Björnstjerna, minister of state and of foreign affairs, opened the congress by the following address:

GENTLEMEN: In the name of the King and of the Government, I can also say in the name of my countrymen, I take pleasure in welcoming you to our country, which you have honored in choosing as the place for the meeting of your congress. I believe I am not deceived in seeing in this choice a mark of sympathy for our nation and a tribute to our enlightened and well-beloved sovereign and to the memory of his august father, the crowned author, who was a constant and zealous promoter of

prison reform. The eagerness with which all governments have responded to the invitation to be represented here is a happy proof of the interest they attach to your work, and the choice of their delegates offers the best guaranty that your work will not be unfruitful. We feared that the distance of Stockholm was a serious obstacle to the meeting of the congress, but the numerous and distinguished assembly which has responded to the appeal proves that our fears were superfluous and that the difficulties would not stop you in the pursuit of a work useful to the cause of progress and humanity. A wise limitation in your regulations has prevented the inconvenience of a great number by requiring special qualifications for admission. Thus constituted, thanks to the light and experience you bring, the Second Congress is destined, without doubt, to lead with practical and beneficial results.

Unfortunately, notwithstanding all our efforts, crime will always exist, until human nature is changed. May you teach us how to combat and lessen its frequency, the method of directing in the right way the dependent children, and to restore to society, as useful members, those unfortunates who habitually relapse into crime after discharge from prison; and you have accomplished a noble task.

In presenting these views, I have the honor to declare opened the Second International Prison Congress.

On the conclusion of the address his excellency Mr. de Grot, private councilor, member of the council of the empire, secretary of state, and president of the commission for the reorganization of the prisons of Russia, moved that his excellency O. W. Björnstjerna be the president, and Dr. Wines, honorary president of the congress, which was adopted with applause. The organization was completed by the appointment of Messrs. Almquist, De Grot, and Thorrissen vice-presidents, Dr. Guillaume, secretary-general, and Messrs. Hj. af Petersons, O. de Printzsköld, and J. H. Kramer secretaries of divisions.

Following this was a lengthy, carefully drafted, and able address by Dr. Wines, mainly upon the progress in prison reform since the London Congress. A few of his opening words may be of interest, showing, as they do, the general situation:

The Second International Penitentiary Congress meets under circumstances the most auspicious as regards time, place, preparation and representation.

As regards time, because the peace of Europe, so long threatened by the angry cloud of war, has, by the wisdom of her representative statesmen, recently assembled in congress in Berlin, been assured; so that the nations may now lay aside the instruments of destruction, and give themselves to the use only of those which are employed in multiplying and intensifying the forces of civilization; in creating, building and perfecting the arts of life and social progress.

As regards the place, because we meet in a country where successive sovereigns have given the penitentiary question a generous and an earnest study, one of whom, Oscar I, of happy memory—father of the illustrious monarch who now fills the throne, and who is therefore by inheritence as well as by conviction the friend of prison reform—having nearly a century ago published a book on prisons and punishments, which has contributed not a little to the progress of such reform; a country where the interest of the sovereigns has been warmly responded to by the people; so that now Sweden is able to offer to the Congress establishments both penal and preventive worthy of its careful examination and study.

As regards preparation, because, as is believed, no international reunion of any kind has ever taken place for whose labors more thorough preparations have been made, since these preparations have covered a period of four years, and have been conducted under the guidance of representative men from the larger part of the countries which took part in the congress of London in 1872.

As regards representation, because the delegates, official and non-official, now assembled in this œcumenical penitentiary council of Stockholm, and the reports from the governments not so represented here, come from regions as broad and points as distant, if not indeed broader and more distant, than the members of any œcumenical council ever summoned by papal authority. It is no exaggeration to say that the immense stretches of island and continent, from Japan, New Zealand, and Australia in the east, to the Hawaiian or Sandwich Islands in the west, and from Nova Scotia and Iceland in the north, to Cape Horn and the Cape of Good Hope in the south, are to-day, by living delegates or by official reports, or by both, in Stockholm, fitly named the Venice of the North.

It is difficult to pause here and not transfer this address entire. However, the proceedings occupy two large royol octavo volumes, where the reader must learn more fully what was said and done at Stockholm. These proceedings have appeared only in the French language, which was the official language of the congresses of Stockholm, Rome, and St. Petersburg. Our Government would confer a lasting benefit to the cause of prison reform in this country by the translation and publication of the papers and discussions of these congresses. There is already a very extensive French literature on penology besides the reports of the congresses. The monthly bulletin of the "Société Générale des Prisons," which has been published since 1877 at 26 Place due Marché St. Honoré, Paris, by its able editor M. Fernand Desportes, secretary-general of the society, is an encyclopedia of the science of penology. At the monthly meetings of the society there are discussions on the various departments of penitentiary science, prison discipline, architecture, diet, labor, as well as patronage; and, above all, preventive measures, by which crime and pauperism are to be reduced, are very fully considered. The members of this organization are a guaranty of its high character. To these discussions as members come senators from the Senate of France, deputies from the Chamber of Deputies, advocates from the courts, high officials charged with the management of the prisons of France, superintendents or managers of reformatory and charitable institutions, and members of the noted Institute of France, distinguished as authors or philosophers. It would be a rare sight to witness in America such men engaged in the discussion of prison reform. The bulletin now forms twelve large volumes of the proceedings and contributed papers. In the French Senate the report of Senator Roussel fills a quarto volume of about 1,000 pages devoted to the question of dependent and ill-treated children. The works of Victor Bournat and Viscount de Haussonville on dependent, abandoned, and illtreated children are of great value. In these works the penologist might get wisdom and inspiration, did his knowledge of French open these sources to him. These journals and works in penology published in English and distributed among prison officials and legislators in this country would be of inestimable value. In the discussions of the various questions in the programme the congress was divided into three sections; besides this was the Scandinavian section; all of which held several sessions.

The American papers or addresses were as follows:

1. Prisoners' Aid Society of Maryland, by G. S. Griffith, president of the society.

2. The Michigan State Public School for Dependent Children, by C. D. Randall, secretary and treasurer of the institution and resident member of the board of control at Coldwater, Mich.

3. Intemperance the source of Poverty, Vice, and Crime, memoir presented by the Woman's Temperance Society of the United States; a very able paper.

4. Reform Establishments for Young Delinquents, by Col. F. B. Sanborn, secretary of the American Social Science Society, Concord, Mass.

5. Report on the Prison System of Maine, by W. W. Riel, superintendent of the State prison of Maine.

6. The Pennsylvania System, by Dr. Morrell, delegate from that State.

7. Vermont Prisons, by G. G. Benedict.

After a lengthy discussion on the several sections of the questions, there was a vote taken on propositions and a report made thereon to the general sessions. In these general sessions the reports were read and a vote was again taken. In this way certain conclusions were reached, some having a greater majority than others.

The programme of the Stockholm congress was brief, compared with that of London or Rome. It was as follows:

PROGRAMME.

First section.

1. To what extent should the mode of administering punishment be defined by law? Should the administration of prisons have discretionary power in this respect when the prescribed regulations would be inapplicable?

2. Would it be practicable to maintain various classes of imprisonment, or to adopt a legal assimilation of all punishments, without any difference except duration and the accessory consequences involved after liberation?

3. What are the conditions by which transportation can be useful in the administration of the penal law?

4. What should be the authority of an inspector-general of prisons? Should this general inspection extend to all prisons, even to private institutions for young delinquents?

Second section.

1. What system should be adopted for national penitentiary statistics?

2. Would it be considered useful for the success of prison administration to establish normal schools for educating prison officers? What has experience taught in this respect?

3. What disciplinary punishments may be permitted in prisons?

4. Examine the question of conditional liberation, not considering the Irish system.

5. Should the cellular system undergo any modifications according to nationality, sex, or social condition of the prisoner?

6. Should the duration of solitary confinement be determined by law? Should the administration of prisons make exceptions except in case of sickness?

Third section.

1. Should patronage or prisoners' aid societies be established, and how? Should there be a distinct society for each sex?

2. Should the state bear the expenses of patronage societies, and under what conditions?

3. According to what principles should institutions be organized for young delinquents acting without discernment and placed in charge of public authority?

4. Also, how should such institutions be organized for vagrant, mendicant, or abandoned children?

5. By what means can there be obtained a unity of action between the police of different states to facilitate and insure the repression of crime?

After the discussions in the sections, and again in the general assembly, the following resolutions were adopted by the congress:

RESOLUTIONS.

1. Without impairing uniformity in the mode of imprisonment, the administration of prisons should have discretionary power, within limits presented by law, to apply punishments as far as possible to secure the reformation of the condemned.

2. Reserving inferior and special punishments for certain light offenses which do not indicate depravity, it is practicable, whatever may be the prison rule, to adopt as far as possible a similarity of imprisonment, differing only in the duration and in the consequences after liberation.

3. Transportation presents difficulties of execution which do not permit it to be adopted in every country, nor does it allow us to hope that it will realize all the conditions of justice.

4. It is not only useful but necessary that the state should have a central authority which should direct and supervise all prisons without exception, as well as all establishments for young delinquents.

5. International penitentiary statistics should be continued in accordance with the system adopted in 1872. The choice of formulas and the details of execution are left with the international penitentiary commission, with the reservation that all statistical information should be preceded or accompanied by explanations. The preparation of the annual international statistics should be severally confided to the prison administrations of each country represented.

6. The congress is of the opinion that prison officers before entering upon their duties should receive a theoretical and practical education. It also considers it essential that there should be sufficient compensation to secure and retain competent officers.

7. In penitentiaries the following disciplinary punishments may be allowed:

(1) Reprimand.

(2) Partial or total deprivation of compensation allowed.

(3) A more strict imprisonment. This punishment may be increased to an extent not affecting the health and in keeping with the character of the prisoner, such as removing the table, chair, or bed from the cell, darkening the cell or depriving him of reading or work.

(4) If the punishments above enumerated are not sufficient, there may be reduction of the food each day along with deprivation of labor if the health or condition of the prisoner admits.

(5) In case of grave violence and rage on the part of the prisoner, the straight-jacket or similar means may be employed.

As to the prisoners awaiting trial, the director should only have the right to use the necessary means to secure detention and to repress all excess.

8. Conditional liberation not being contrary to the principles of penal law and presenting advantages to both society and the condemned, should be commended to the consideration of governments and should be protected by guaranties.

9. In countries where the cellular system is in operation it can be applied without distinction of race, social position, or sex, except in case of special conditions of race or social position. There is no reservation except in the case of juvenile delinquents. If the cellular régime is extended to them it should be in a manner not to injure their moral or physical development.

10. Whatever penitentiary system is adopted, if it allows individual isolation the duration should be determined by law definitely if a pure cellular régime is in question or in the limits of a stated maximum. Where cellular imprisonment is in force the law should authorize the administration of prisons, under certain guaranties, to make exceptions when the condition of the prisoner is such that his life or reason might be affected by long detention in the cell.

11. The congress being convinced that the patronage of adult discharged convicts is the indispensable complement of reform prison discipline, taking into account the results obtained since the last congress, is of the opinion:

(1) That patronage societies should generally be conducted by private charity coöperating with the State but avoiding an official character.

(2) The congress is of the opinion that patronage should be extended to those discharged prisoners who have given during their detention evidence of their reformation, certified by the prison administration or by visitors appointed by patronage societies.

(3) The congress considers it practicable that distinct patronage societies be organized for discharged women and that they be confined, as far as possible, to that sex.

12. In considering the condition of minors acquitted as having acted without discernment and of vagrant, mendicant, and vicious children in general, we should, above all, be inspired with the principle that it is not the aim so much to administer punishment as it is to provide an education to enable these children to gain an honest living and to be useful to society.

(1) The best education is one that is given in a respectable family. In the second place, in default of a family which guaranties a good

education and would execute the trust, recourse should be had to public or private institutions.

(2) These establishments should be based on religion, work, and education.

(3) The question whether these institutions should be on the cottage plan in imitation of the family or on the congregate, receiving all the children in one large building, may be decided according to circumstances. In either case the number in one establishment should be limited so that the superintendent or other manager can have personal knowledge of each.

(4) Children belonging to different faiths should be separated as much as can be. The separating of the sexes and different ages is desirable for children over 10 years of age. If the circumstances do not permit placing the children of different ages and sexes in different institutions, they should at least be separated in the institution when received.

(5) The education in institutions should correspond to the conditions in which the working classes live and on the same basis as the elementary schools. The greatest simplicity in diet, clothing, and lodging should be provided, and, above all, labor should be furnished.

(6) Work should be organized so that children from the country as well as those from the city may find means to fit themselves for the future for which they are destined. If practicable, different establishments should be organized to meet this double want, and if not, they should be provided in the same establishments.

(7) Girls should receive in institutions an education which should, above all things, teach them housekeeping.

(8) The placing of vicious children in families or institutions should be so as to avoid, as much as possible, legal interference and by means of orders by the court to prevent the child from being withdrawn before the completion of his education, or against the will of the family or direction of the institution. The congress commends every effort made in this direction by certain legislation, substituting guardianship for judicial intervention.

(9) The duration in establishments might be extended to the age of 18 years. Liberation before this time might be revoked for misconduct.

(10) The administration of institutions should watch over children on their discharge, to provide a home for them in a respectable family as farm hands, domestics, servants, apprentices, assistants of foremen, or established in some other way.

(11.) The control of all institutions should be reserved to public authority.

13. To prevent crimes and to hasten and insure their repression it is desirable that there should be an understanding between the governments of the different countries. This understanding should, in the

first place, enter into treaties of extradition, which should be revised and rendered more uniform, and into the methods which should be recognized as the most practical to facilitate the execution of the provisions contained in the treaties and to establish more intimate relations between the police administrations of the different States.

14. The congress is of the opinion that the most efficient way to prevent relapse into crime is by a reformatory prison system, together with conditional liberation and the less frequent application of short imprisonments for habitual criminals. It also considers, on this subject, that if the legislation of the different countries would indicate in a sufficiently precise manner the increase of penalties encountered in case of recidivists the relapses would become less frequent.

The congress also values those institutions which are recognized as the complement of a prison system such as societies of patronage, workhouses, farm schools, or other aids as being effectually able to contribute to the desired end.

REGULATIONS OF THE INTERNATIONAL PENITENTIARY COMMISSION.

The following are the regulations of the International Penitentiary Commission, which were elaborated at Stockholm in 1877, adopted at the conference in Paris November 6, 1880, and confirmed at the conference in Rome in 1886.

ARTICLE 1. There is established an International Penitentiary Commission, whose duty shall be to collect documents and information relative to the prevention and repression of crime, and to prison management, for the purpose of informing governments upon general methods for preventing the violation of penal laws, and to secure the repression of crime by the reformation of criminals.

ART. 2. This commission shall be composed of delegates from different governments who will unite in the work above indicated. It will receive all communications, written or verbal, from those interested in the work in which the commission is engaged.

ART. 3. Each country can appoint one or more delegates. In the latter case, however, each government will have but one vote.

ART. 4. The commission will usually meet once in two years, successively in each of the countries which adhere to the regulations. It will fix and publish the date and place of its reunions.

ART. 5. It will name, at its regular reunion, its executive committee, composed of the president and a vice-president, who will be charged with the duties of treasurer and secretary.

ART. 6. The commission will publish in the French language, either in full or by abstract, in its bulletin:

First, laws and regulations relative to prisons which are enacted by different governments; second, projects of law on this subject, with reports which precede them; third, reports on the questions admitted to the programme of the International Prison Congresses; fourth, articles or original memoirs upon subjects kindred to the above, and which will be recognized to be of general interest. It will organize an international system of prison statistics.

ART. 7. In its reunions, the commission will discuss the questions submitted by the executive committee. Each member may submit to the committee questions for discussion. These questions should be addressed to the president at least 3 months before the reunion of the commission. Every discussion shall be recorded in the proceedings of the commission, with the names of the persons taking part.

ART. 8. After an understanding with the different governments the commission will fix the date and place of the International Prison Congresses, will prepare the programme, and will adopt, each time, the regulations for these reunions.

ART. 9. There will be an interval of at least 5 years between the congresses.

ART. 10. The commission will open correspondence with the prison societies existing in the different countries and seek to secure the creation of similar associations. It will also put itself in communication with persons who, on account of their special knowledge and their experience, can render service in this work.

ART. 11. To meet the expenses of the publication of the proceedings of the commission, of circulars, reports, inquiries, correspondence, etc., the commission allows each year to its officers the sum of 8,000 to 15,000 francs, which will be furnished by contributions of the states at the rate of 25 francs, the minimum, and 50 francs, the maximum, per million inhabitants. The delegates will deposit at each reunion in the hands of the member designated by the commission the contribution of the government they represent.

ART. 12. The executive committee will execute the order of the commission. It will convoke the reunion and fix the order of business in the intervals of the meetings of the commission and will charge itself with the management of the affairs.

ART. 13. It will consult the members of the commission by circulars whenever deemed necessary.

ART. 14. The Secretary will have charge of all correspondence, collecting the documents, and preserving the records.

ART. 15. All acts of the executive committee, circulars, and propositions shall have attached thereto the signatures of the president or vice-president and of the secretary.

ART. 16. The executive committee will present each year to the commission a report of its management, the budget estimates, and the accounts. These reports, as well as the proceedings of the sessions of the commission shall be sent to the governments interested.

The delegates from the United States were J. B. Brittinger, Pennsylvania; W. Bushnell, Ohio; J. L. Milligan, Pennsylvania; B. Stark, Connecticut; J. L. Stevens, United States minister; Mrs. M. A. Stone, Mrs. Henry R. Tonne, F. H. Wines, Mrs. Emma S. Wines, and Dr. E. C. Wines, the delegate of the United States Government.

BANQUETS IN HONOR OF THE STOCKHOLM CONGRESS.

A description of the banquets tendered in honor of the congress fill about 100 printed pages of the proceedings. A full translation would be found to be interesting, and would throw much light, by the addresses delivered, on the estimate of the government for the congress and the labors it was there to perform. But only some extracts can be given of the festival at the chateau of Drottningholm, to which the King invited the members August 24, at 6 o'clock p. m. This castle is situated on an island in Lake Mälar, about 6 miles from Stockholm. The journey was made on two steamboats, placed to the order of the congress. A number of high state officials went with the members. The evening was warm and most magnificent and the shores of the lake were very attractive. The city presented a most charming view from the Mälar. The center of the city appeared crowned by the imposing royal, rectangular residence, which is in remarkable contrast to the slender forms of

several monuments, the church of Riddarholm, and the sails of numerous vessels stationed in the port. Along the shores are forests, green fields, parks, medical and charitable establishments, and summer residences. After a while, numerous islands, large and small, appear on either side, covered with deep woods or cultivated fields, and now and then a hill crowned with a windmill, houses of infinite color, in wood or stone, and elegant villas of the Swedish gentry or the rich merchants of Stockholm, making a scene charming to the stranger and confirming his sentiment that this is the Venice of the North.

At 7 p. m. the imposing chateau of Drottningholm, the Versailles of Sweden, is reached. It was constructed in the seventeenth century, on the model of most princely residences. The guests, to the number of 500, immediately went to the chateau, where they were received in the name of the King by the grand chamberlain, in the great apartments of the second story. In the vestibule the band of the Royal Guards played a festive march. The King soon arrived and received the guests, who were presented to him in the "Gallery of the Princesses," a vast salon, decorated with the portraits of the queens living in the time of Oscar I. The King received all in the most cordial manner. The guests circulated in the splendid galleries of the palace, including the "Gallery of the Princesses." Everywhere appeared numerous art works, which excited the admiration of the visitors. The band continued to execute, from time to time, the best selections of its repertory.

At 9 o'clock the King, followed by the guests to the sound of a festive march, descended to the first floor, where supper was served on five different tables, the King inviting to his the members of the diplomatic corps, the high government officials, and the most prominent members of the congress.

After the bountiful repast addresses, toasts, and conversation followed. Some selections are given, showing the current of thought in prison reform, and the position of the subject with high officials and the members of the congress. The eminent Prussian penologist and government official, M. de Grot, appropriately and ably addressed the King first, and incidentally the congress.

His excellency M. de Grot proposed a toast to the king, and spoke as follows:

For a long time prison questions have occupied the attention of governments, philanthropists, and great thinkers; but the idea has only recently been conceived that in order to reduce crime it is absolutely necessary to adopt certain preventive measures, measures which, to secure substantial results, should be common to all governments, as certain great principles should serve as the basis of prison administration.

It was for this purpose that there met at Frankfort-on-the-Main first, then at Brussels, and later at Frankfort, some gentlemen specially devoted to prison questions; but these meetings were efforts which produced unimportant results.

It was not until 1872, thanks to the initiative of the eminent and indefatigable Dr. Wines, that the first prison congress was successfully held, at which the representatives of most of the governments took part; gentlemen eminent in science, delegates from philanthropic societies, and others. It was London which had the honor

to gather in its walls all these illustrious men. And who should dispute this honor for England? It is the country of Howard, of Romilly, of Bentham, of Maconochie, of Recorder Hill, of Walter Crofton, of Elizabeth Fry, and of Mary Carpenter.

The congress of London has accomplished its task. But each member learned that there remained something to do; that the time had been too short for the preliminary studies and for successful deliberation upon all the grave and complex questions which had been proposed to the congress. Scarcely had it been closed before a commission composed of representatives from part of the States represented at the congress of London met at Brussels, and later at Brussels, to discuss the organization of future prison congresses.

One of the first questions proposed at this session was the place of the next reunion. Stockholm was named and was accepted not only with acclamation, but enthusiasm, and soon after the commission had the honor to obtain from Your Majesty the gracious invitation for the second international congress to meet in the capital of Sweden.

What country, truly, has so many claims for this second congress? In what other land can be found a king who has so profoundly studied prison questions and published a work of such high merit and well appreciated in the learned world and in administrative circles as this work due to the pen of the late Oscar I, your illustrious father?

Where is the government which follows with more attention all improvements in prison reform in other countries, in the organization of reform schools, in a word, in all that is connected with the prevention and repression of crime, and who utilizes these improvements for his country with so much wisdom and success as the Government of Your Majesty? No doubt the commission well knew that a sympathetic welcome awaited it in Italy, and the Italian Government which, by its delegates, demands that the next congress shall be held in Rome, confirms this sentiment. But between the country of Oscar I and of Beccaria, the commission does not hesitate an instant, and chooses Stockholm.

And on my part, sire, permit me to add, in the name of the members of the congress, where could we have found a welcome so amiable and cordial, a hospitality so large and gracious as that which we have received in Stockholm?

Your Majesty has taken the pains to come from a distance to honor the congress by your illustrious presence, and this evening you have kindly sacrificed several hours to extend to us the most splendid hospitality of your palace.

This is not all. We have learned with gratitude that the Government of Your Majesty has charged itself with printing and publishing the proceedings of this congress, and to put itself in communication with other governments to realize one of the projects of the congress—that of creating a permanent prison commission composed of the delegates of the different countries.

All these acts highly demonstrate the value Your Majesty attaches to the questions which occupy our attention, and fill our hearts with the most profound gratitude and the highest respect for you.

Permit me, sire, to offer a toast to the health of Your Majesty.

This toast was applauded with enthusiasm by all.
The King replied as follows:

GENTLEMEN: I am very sensible to the words which M. de Grot has addressed to me in the name of the congress. First of all, I thank you for recalling the memory of my venerated father in a sense as honorable to him as dear to my heart. The objects to which all our efforts tend are of the highest importance. Society can not exist without law, and law requires that crime shall be punished. At the same time, legal punishment should not tend to the destruction, but to the reformation of the guilty. To my mind, the idea of justice is associated with sentiments of humanity and love for our fellow-beings.

I certainly admit that this great truth encounters many difficulties in its application, but such difficulties will not be insurmountable for gentlemen so enlightened and expert in this matter as you are. Your repeated congresses, furnishing occasions for discussing penitentiary questions, I am convinced, bear their fruits, and applauding your efforts I propose a toast to the penitentiary congress of 1878.

Prolonged applause followed the King's address. He was followed by an eloquent, brief address by M. Pessina, official delegate from Italy, and then by Dr. Wines, who spoke at some length and ended by proposing a toast "to the memory of the man, the monarch, the statesman, the patriot, philanthropist and Christian, Oscar I."

At the close of the addresses the guests took leave of their royal host and returned to the steamboat, crossing the garden which extended before the chateau, and which was brilliantly illuminated. The masses of verdure, among which allegorical statues were arranged ornamenting the esplanade, produced the most ravishing effect in the midst of the somber summer night.

The boats moved from the shore, but the eyes remained fixed on the chateau, of which the imposing front was enhanced by illumination. This beautiful spectacle disappeared behind a hill and they found themselves surrounded by darkness; but new surprises were in store for them. Numerous villas on the shores of the Mälar were also illuminated, and from time to time Bengal fires revealed the graceful proportions of the islands drowned in purple light. At 11:30 o'clock in the evening the members arrived in Stockholm, bringing with them the sentiment of having passed, thanks to royal hospitality, an evening which they would keep forever in remembrance.

Besides this banquet given by the King, there were others equally entertaining, including the soirée extended by the Swedish members at Hasselbacken in the Royal Park, at which the governor of Stockholm and state officials and men of prominence in letters and art were present; also the banquet given by the city of Stockholm, at the place last named, where the guests were of like high character; also the excursion to Upsal to visit the great public institutions located there, and finally the farewell banquet at the Grand Hotel.

The general character of this congress, the ability of the members, the discussions on the various branches of penology, its platform and conclusions, mark this congress as one of the highest excellence.

THE CONGRESS OF ROME.

The Third International Prison Congress was held in Rome by invitation of the Italian Government in 1885. The international prison commission had made ample provision for the same, and its work was greatly facilitated by the local committee of arrangements. The magnitude of the labors of this congress is shown by the six large octavo volumes of the proceedings. The valuable additions to the literature of penology, furnished by this congress, can not be overestimated.

The reports, papers, addresses, and discussions cover the whole field of prison construction, discipline, management, and economy. Like its predecessors, it was not a gathering of impractical and sentimental theorists, but of experienced and able specialists, legislators, and jurists. The average ability and high character of the members of this congress and its predecessors give these associations a standing equal to the legislative body of any country.

The following governments were represented in Rome: Germany, (which included delegates from Baden, Bavaria, and Prussia), England, Austria-Hungary (including delegates from Austria, Crotia, and Hungary), Belgium, Chili, Denmark, Spain, The United States, France, Greece, Italy, Mexico, The Netherlands, Portugal, The Argentine Republic, Russia, Sweden, Norway, Switzerland, and Uruguay. The United States delegates were Dr. Henry Coggeshall, of Rhode Island; Samuel Houghton, of Washington; J. S. Milligan, of Philadelphia, delegate of the National Prison Association; W. M. F. Round, secretary of that association, and Stark Benjamin, of Connecticut. No absence was more noticeable than that of the venerable and distinguished Dr. E. C. Wines, who had died not long after the congress of Stockholm, and just after the completion of his great work on "The State of Prisons and Child-Saving Institutions." In one of the volumes of the congress of Rome is a brief biography of Dr. Wines, the founder of the international congress, with his portrait. The concluding words of the tribute to his memory are:

> The indefatigable apostle of penitentiary reform in both worlds, he has valiantly conquered his place among the most eminent philanthropists of our century, and his death will not only be a serious loss to his country, but to all the civilized world.

The character and standing of the delegates can be seen in the several positions held by them at home. Among the delegates, Baden sent a ministerial counselor, a professor of the University of Heidelberg, a privy councilor and director of the penitentiary of Fribourg, and a judge of the supreme court. Bavaria sent a professor of the University of Munich, and a ministerial counselor. Prussia sent a member of the Judicial Society of Berlin, a senator, a chaplain delegate from the Society of Prisons in Dusseldorf, and a government assessor. England sent a delegate of the Society of Social Science in London. Austria sent the assistant prosecuting attorney of Trieste, and the superior prosecuting attorney from the same city. Crotia sent an advocate and the director of the central prison of Lepoglava. Hungaria sent a ministerial counselor and the president of the high court of justice. Belgium sent its administrator-general of prisons, an inspector-general of prisons, and a director of the prison of St. Gilles. The delegates from Spain were an advocate and magistrate of Barcelona, an advocate and professor of the academy of jurisprudence, a deputy of Parliament, and a senator. France sent a director of a house of correction, the secretary of the Société Générale des Prisons, a member of the superior

council of prisons, the director of the prisons of France, a prison architect, a prison chaplain, a senator, a doctor of laws, the secretary of the Chamber of Deputies, and others. In the French delegation were gentlemen who have an international reputation. Italy sent advocates, directors of prisons, university professors, the director-general of prisons, prison inspectors, directors of statistics, Parliament deputies, barons, marquises, counts, civil engineers, directors of prisons, and many others equally qualified, as delegates. Russia sent her inspector-general of prisons, a judge of the court of Warsaw, professors, advocates, the secretary of the superior council of prisons, and others. From Sweden came a former director general of prisons, a doctor of laws, a member of the supreme court, etc. And so with all the other states.

The practical experience and special training of the delegates eminently fitted them to discuss all questions arising in the congress, and to profit for themselves and the countries they represented. It would be a pleasure to insert here the names of distinguished and able men who were members of this congress, but the list would be a long one, and injustice would be done by omission.

The International Prison Commission held meetings in Rome before the congress, beginning November 13, 1885.

At the first meeting the president of the commission, M. Beltrani-Scalia, the inspector-general of prisons and member of the cabinet, presided.

An address of welcome was delivered by His Excellency Duke Torlonia, *syndic* of Rome and president of the local executive committee. The response was made by M. de Holtzendorff.

The session was opened by a brief address from M. Beltrani-Scalia, who for many years has been at the head of the government of prisons in Italy and most prominent in prison reform in his country and always one of the most distinguished workers in the International Prison Congresses. He spoke as follows:

GENTLEMEN AND HONORED COLLEAGUES: Permit me first to extend to you a cordial welcome and to express the regret that we can not also welcome two eminent members of the commission, Messrs. Almquist and Galkine-Wraskoy, who have not yet arrived in Rome. But we shall soon have the pleasure of seeing them, with others yet absent who will take part in our work. Unfortunately time has thinned our ranks, and we lament the death of Dr. Wines, of Count Sollohub, and of M. Ploos von Amstel, whose intelligent interest in prison reform we admire, and whose memory we shall always keep. Honor to those who are no more.

I am gratified to see that other states have accepted the terms of our permanent international commission, and the result appears to be of great importance; for in my opinion our commission, when it comprehends the representatives of every country, can render true service in accomplishing the reforms we seek. Permit me to propose for these governments a vote of thanks.

Faithful to the programme we have traced, we have endeavored to give to the congress of Rome a scientific and practical character. You will decide, gentlemen, if this programme is filled; but if the end is not attained it will not be your fault, for your favor and kindness have always exceeded our most exacting demands.

Our indefatigable colleague and secretary, Dr. Guillaume, will give you his report of the work of our bureau. But before I leave the floor permit me, gentlemen and honored colleagues, to express personally my most sincere gratitude to you, for in returning, as I hope, to private life at the close of the International Prison Congress of Rome, I shall be happy to carry with me the remembrance of all your kindness.

At one of the sessions of the commission His Excellency M. Galkine-Wraskoy, on behalf of the Russian Government, invited the congress to hold its next session in St. Petersburg. This invitation, on recommendation of the commission, was afterwards accepted by the congress.

The sessions of the commission were held in the Palace of Fine Arts and occupied several days.

The congress of Rome held its first session in the Palace of Fine Arts on the 16th day of November, 1885.

His Excellency M. Depretis, president of the council and Italian minister of the interior, opened the congress at 2 o'clock p. m., and before a large audience spoke as follows:

GENTLEMEN: I am very happy to be called by my official duties to welcome you to Rome.

The Government of the King witnesses with great satisfaction official representatives and masters of science called together to-day, in Rome, to take part in a prison congress. I pray, gentlemen delegates, that you tender to your governments our profound gratitude.

Permit me also to express my thanks to the ladies, who bring into this assembly the comforting image of goodness and the inspiration of maternal pity.

The discussions which you resume touch upon the most difficult antitheses of the social problem—on one side the absolute necessity of justice, which imposes the protection of all the rights and the repression of all criminal wrongs, and on the other side the sentiment of brotherly unity, which forces us to suffer with the feeble, to humble ourselves with the unfortunate who have been struck by the greatest of infirmities, moral decay.

Modern society, trained to faith in human progress, can not give up the hope of compelling evil itself to desire, and I almost say, to produce, good.

This sublime object, suggested by the eminent men I see in this hall, the noble statues and hallowed names, is a happy prelude to your works.

How many efforts, doubts, laborious experiments, and mistakes even, recall these glorious portraits of your predecessors. But hereafter, thanks to your care, we can go forward on solid ground.

After the reunions of Frankfort and Brussels, which indicated the way to fruitful researches, by the mutual exchange of ideas, by associations and experiences, the sessions of the congresses of London and Stockholm have impressed on the labors of the congress that sure and practical direction which should characterize all truly humanitarian work.

The congress of Stockholm selected Rome for the third session.

The Government of the King has cheerfully accepted the honor.

Called to exercise the very agreeable duties of hospitality, we desire to indicate the value we in Italy attach to the grave questions the congress proposes to discuss.

The programme itself indicates the importance of the work of this reunion. To secure the efficiency of punishments, to examine into the management of prisons, into the details of prison construction, into the discipline and hygiene of institutions, into the moral and intellectual training of prisoners, and the solution of the grave problem of humanity; behold the subjects of your learned discussions. One point, above all, merits in my opinion your especial solicitude. It is that which concerns the

rôle of moral rehabilitation, by which modern society courageously undertakes to complete the cold and austere action of justice. This rôle acquires for the young, whom it turns from the road of vice and crime, the prestige of a holy mission.

I have endeavored, gentlemen, delegates and members of the congress, to express in a few words the sentiments with which I welcome you to Rome. But I do not desire to prejudge your deliberations. You are about to inaugurate your interesting discussions. But at this moment I have received a telegram from His Majesty the King, which please permit me to read to you as it is written.

"In my own name and that of the nation I send greeting to the illustrious citizens of Italy and the distinguished strangers assembled in the capital of the realm as the International Prison Congress.

"I shall follow with most lively interest the proceedings to which men of so great learning may devote themselves, animated with a desire for the general welfare, and I, therefore, express the wish that their deliberations may bring about the happiest results in reconciling the rule of justice with that of humanity."

Gentlemen delegates and members of the congress, in the name of His Majesty the King I declare opened the third session, the session of Rome, of the International Prison Congress.

M. Beltrani-Scalia, as president of the permanent International Prison Commission, responded, thanking his excellency the president of the government council, the King and the Italian commission, which had aided in organizing the congress, and introduced Baron de Holtzendorff, vice-president of the International Prison Commission, who addressed the congress, and after him M. Mancini and Senator Canonico. After these addresses the congress passed into the exposition of the products of prison work and types of cells. The congress continued in session until November 24, holding general sessions and sessions in divisions. The closing session was one of great interest. The proceedings, addresses, etc., have a value in general literature. It was announced that Baron Holtzendorff, by reason of his health, was unable to preside, and the following was received from M. Depretis, president of the council and minister of the interior:

ROME, *November* 24, 1885.

Mr. PRESIDENT: Knowing that to-day the International Penitentiary Congress would complete its labors, I desired to be present at the session to thank all who by their attendance have honored the congress. Finding it impossible for me to be with you I request, Mr. President, that you present to the members of the congress this expression of my gratitude and that of the Italian Government.

The president of the council and minister of the interior.

DEPRETIS.

At this time Mr. Round, the secretary of the National Prison Association of the United States, extended a cordial invitation to the members to attend the meeting of that association to be held in Atlanta, Ga., in October, 1886.

The discussion for this session was on this question of the programme:

"What are the educational means for Sundays and week days that should be used along with religious instruction?"

The first speaker was Mademoiselle Poet, doctor of laws, of the

faculty of Turin, who spoke on the subject ably and intelligently. At the close of her address she presented the conclusions she recommended to the question, which were adopted and will be found in the programme.

She was followed by Count Forestra, who in the course of his remarks said:

Permit me to say publicly that I rejoice in having seen the ladies taking part in our work, and in hearing at this time the remarkable report of Mademoiselle Poet, doctor of laws, of the faculty of Turin. Honor to this young lady, who has attained the university degree with éclat, demonstrating thus the right of women to the liberal professions and to every other right from which she is not separated by the special condition of sex. At the same time I regret that the court of Turin would not admit the lady doctor of laws to practice the profession of law, and I hope that Mademoiselle Poet may yet find in some other jurisdiction more favor.

The advance of progressive ideas, of equity, and of justice, which tend every day to further render to woman all rights compatible with her sex can not be checked by such opposition. And Italy, which is the land of liberty and the arts, ought not to delay discarding the yoke of old prejudices and unjust precedents, which no longer belong to this time.

I hope, gentlemen, as you have admitted, and justly so, the ladies to take part in our work, that you will agree with me, and will pardon this digression in favor of the equality of woman, which in time all nations must recognize.

This may be read with profit by some of the conservative institutions which have not yet followed the modern liberal, just, and intelligent example of Michigan, the doors of whose great university, as well as its law and medical departments, stand wide open for woman, whatever land she may hail from.

The closing session was quite lengthy, as reports from the several sections of the congress were presented and the conclusions voted on.

The following address of the president of the congress closed its labors:

GENTLEMEN: The order of the day for the session of the International Congress of Rome having been exhausted, I can not leave the chair of the presidency without addressing to you gentlemen, members of the congress, some words which I hope will faithfully echo your sentiments. We complete a work, gentlemen, of which the end is the public good of every country, of every nation, and which must have a salutary effect for international prison management. We have freely expressed our ideas, our opinions, and the results of our experiences, and we have submitted to the free expression of those who are interested in the end we seek.

If this work has succeeded, it is not to you only that the most of the merit should be attributed.

Our intellectual efforts would have been employed in vain if a high patronage had not opened the arena in which our labors are accomplished.

It is in the first place to His Majesty the King of Italy that we owe our most humble thanks for the gracious permission that he has given us to unite under his powerful protection, and for the lively interest he has shown by his visit to the exposition. This gracious solicitude increases our zeal for the future and assures our future success.

In the second place, I must express our most sincere thanks to the noble and illustrious Italian nation, which has prepared and given us such a cordial welcome. The ancestors of this nation, gentlemen, as you well know, conquered and subjugated in ancient times foreign people by the force of arms. To-day we freely admit ourselves conquered by the intellectual force and by the sublime principles we pursue.

Our gratitude to the Government should not be less, above all, to our illustrious president, M. Depretis, for the powerful aid he has accorded and for the prestige which his friendly assistance has procured for us.

We express our sentiments of gratitude to the city of Rome, and to her illustrious magistrate, the Duke of Torlonia, for the sympathy with which he has honored us.

Finally, I fulfill an agreeable duty in expressing our sentiments of gratitude to our Italian colleagues and to the Italian commissioners for the excellent arrangements by which they have facilitated our labors.

We should also include in our thanks the absent reporters and our secretary-general, as well as all those who sent their works and have shown thus their interest.

Having reached the close of our labors, it remains with me to declare closed the Third International Prison Congress of Rome, and I invite you to close the session with me by the cry, "Vive le Roi d'Italie!"

PROGRAMME OF THE CONGRESS OF ROME, WITH THE CONCLUSIONS ADOPTED BY THE CONGRESS.

Section 1.

Question 1. Would the suspension of certain civil or political rights for a term of years be consistent with a system of prison reform?

Conclusion.—The punishment of suspension is consistent with a system of prison reform on condition that it is only applied when the special act which results in conviction justifies the fear of an abuse of the law to the prejudice either of public or lawful private interests, and if it be inflicted for only a definite time, except when the principal punishment is for life.

Question 2. Could there not be substituted for imprisonment for certain misdemeanors some other punishment or restriction of liberty, such as labor in some establishment without confinement, or the limitation for a time to a place designated, or in case of a first light offense by admonition?

Consideration deferred to the next congress.

Question 3. What discretion should the judge have in determining the punishment?

Conclusions.—(1) The maximum punishment for each offense should be fixed by law, and the judge should have no power to exceed it.

(2) The law should fix the minimum penalty for each offense, but the minimum can be diminished by the judge when he believes that the offense is accompanied by extenuating circumstances which were not contemplated by the law.

(3) When penal law names two kinds of punishment, one for offenses which disgrace and one for offenses which do not, the judge may in certain cases substitute the least severe penalty when he finds in the offense punished, in the abstract, no dishonorable motive.

Question 4. What means should be adopted in legislation to reach more efficiently habitual receivers of stolen property and other persons who incite or influence the commission of crime?

Referred to the next congress.

Question 5. What should be the legal responsibility of parents or guardians for offenses committed by their children or wards?

Conclusions:—(1) The congress is of the opinion that it is for the interest of society that the legislature should guard against the evil consequences of the immoral education of children by their parents. One of the methods recommended is to authorize the courts to declare, for a stated time, the parental rights forfeited when the facts sufficiently justify that course.

Question 6. What authority should be conferred on the judge to commit young delinquents to public educational institutions or reformatories when they have been discharged as having acted without discernment, or in case they should be punished by imprisonment?

Conclusions.—The judge should have authority to commit a young delinquent who has been acquitted as having acted without discernment to an educational institution or to a reform school.

The limit of the detention in the institution should be fixed by the judge who should retain the right to discharge when the circumstances will warrant it. The sojourn in the institution may be shortened by conditional liberation; the child to continue under the supervision of the establishment.

(2) The judge should have the authority to determine that the imprisonment of the young delinquent should be in an educational or reformatory institution. This detention should be only in a public institution.

(3) Reserving the laws established in different countries on the correctional authority of parents, the congress expresses the opinion that in developing the paternal authority, the legislature should be inspired with the high idea of fully respecting the unlimited authority of the head of the family when exercised in a manner not hurtful to the children.

Paternal correction should always be of a private character and should not establish any criminal precedent and should be without any criminal result.

Section 2.

Question 1. According to the most recent experience, what changes should be introduced in the construction of cellular prisons, to render them more simple and less expensive, without injury to the necessary conditions of a sound and intelligent system?

Conclusions.—Desiring not to lose the benefit of convict labor in prison construction or management in countries where such work is considered possible, there may be indicated for study, according to the country and the case, as examples, some economical features, as follows:

1. The simplification or suppression, under certain reservations, of exceptional conveniences and necessities; of all expenses for mere ornament or for the monumental effect of prison buildings; simplicity and severity of aspect being especially adapted to prisons.

2. The choice of location at a reasonable price.

3. The selection of grounds that will not require unusual labor to carry out the plan, and where the facilities for obtaining materials are sufficient and there is proximity to easy ways of communication to avoid expenses of transportation.

4. The selection of the least expensive materials, provided that they offer sufficient conditions of strength and adaptation to the needs of construction.

5. The introduction of less expense in special services, such as in the laundry, the bakery, or the hospital, by either introducing them in certain sections of the main building with the least expense, during the first construction, or in the light buildings near by.

6. A less expensive interior arrangement of chapel schools, their seats and platforms, the arrangement of chapel schools for half or part of the inmates, when double the number of the class or the conferences do not offer any inconveniences to the good direction of the services.

7. The simplification of the system for lighting, heating, water service, cleanliness, electric bells, so as to expend less in plumbing.

8. The decrease in size of the central hall or pavilion space, allowing only dimensions necessary for uniting the different wings.

9. The omission of space which would not be useful between the surrounding walls, drives, and buildings, to diminish the expenses of acquiring land and constructing walls. Less extent and greater height to be given to the buildings, when convenient, to economize expenses of construction and acquisition of land; constructing for example the cells in three stories instead of two when the exterior and interior ventilation will be secured.

10. The stonework, when possible, to be less massive, especially the walls of the upper stories intended for cells, for the more harmless prisoners and for those more submissive to discipline.

11. In general, the selection of architects, contractors, and builders having certain experience in this kind of work, and employed so as to avoid mistakes in the estimates and plans, and who will be interested in the economy of construction.

The congress at the same time advises:

That it would be useful to make a just classification between certain kinds of prisoners, and consequently between establishments where they should be placed.

On one hand would be classified, for example, convicts who should be placed in individual separation as complete as one would desire, but without having to undergo the severities of cellular punishment; that is to say, persons in the condition of preventive detention, and, by analogy, prisoners having to undergo confinement for a brief period. For this class houses of isolation would suffice, not having all the complication belonging to a true prison with a protracted sojourn, and allowing the mitigation of régime reserved to each individual according to his legal situation.

On the other hand would be those persons having to undergo, by reason of their sentence, a true cellular imprisonment. They would consequently be placed in establishments which would be provided with a complete and necessarily more costly cellular organization, but which would be inexpensive to create, thanks to the diminution of the prison population.

Question 2. What would be the best plan for local prisons for preventive detention or for brief confinement?

Conclusions.—Local prisons for preventive detention, or for short confinement, should be established on the plan of individual separation.

The régime of the accused should be exempt from everything which would have the character of punishment.

The prisoner undergoing a short sentence should have simple repressive confinement.

Question 3. Would it not be well to establish a better system of imprisonment than now followed for agricultural countries or for a population unacquainted with industrial work?

Conclusion.—The establishment of outdoor work for prisoners of some duration is recommended for some countries and for certain conditions of society. This work should not be considered as irreconcilable with present prison systems in different countries.

Question 4. Concerning councils or commissions of supervision for prisons and similar institutions, their organization, and the authority which the law should confer on them.

Conclusion.—It is indispensable that there should be, for every establishment where convicts undergo imprisonment, a board to supervise the condition of the inmates, to aid in their reformation, and to procure on their discharge the benefits of patronage.

Without intending anything derogatory to the legislatures in the certain States which control committees or commissions, the congress believes it is useful to take into consideration the following propositions:

(*a*) A vigilance and prison-aid committee, instituted by law, should exist for every penal institution.

(*b*) The committee should consist of members designated by law and chosen from former officers or other persons of known morality. The number should be in accordance with the magnitude of the institution. Part of this commission might be composed of one or several members of the judiciary of the district in which the institution is located, and one or more in such district representing the administration.

(*c*) In the establishment of a vigilance or prison-aid commission or committee, nothing should be done to impair the direction of the institution, especially in what relates to penal and disciplinary service, concerning which the direction has the responsibility.

(*d*) The operation of the commission or committee should be under the authority of the Government direction of prisons.

(*e*) The functions of the commission should consist mainly in advising on measures relating to labor, the moral and religious instruction, the execution of regulations relative to the discipline of prisoners, and to recommend to the general administration such reforms or modifications as it may deem necessary for the good service of the institution.

(*f*) The commission should also advise on all questions relating to pardons, to remitting or reducing punishment, to conditional liberation, to prepare for or procure the patronage of discharged prisoners, to inquire into putting into practice regulations relative to hygiene, the food and the support of the prisoners, and to unite in the control of the purchase of supplies, or in contracts concerning the same services.

Question 5. Upon what principle should the dietary of the prisoners be based in a hygienic and penitentiary point of view?

Conclusions.—The principles which should furnish the basis of the dietary of prisoners in a hygienic and penitentiary point of view are two; one philosophic and the other scientific.

The philosophic principle is presented in the general consideration of the subject.

As to the scientific principle, it rests upon the three following psychological ideas, corroborated by experience:

1. The prisoner in a state of health, without work, should take a minimum of necessary and sufficient food which is designated in physiology under the name of the maintenance ration. This ration is represented by a collection of foods suitably chosen and varied, in keeping with the climate, the customs of the different countries and in which meat should be included.

2. The prisoner who works needs more food. The work ration is represented above the support ration by foods suitably chosen and varied.

3. The food should supply physiological demands, the proportion of albumen or nitrogen to non-albuminous food can vary from one-third to one-sixth, but should not deviate materially or permanently from this.

In application of these principles, we add that on their entrance to the prison, the convicts should have a medical examination to determine the state of their health, their physical constitution and their former manner of living. They should be weighed periodically.

A special dietary should be established for those whose constitutions are impaired and for those in places where epidemics prevail.

Question 6. Which is preferable in prisons; work for the administration or contract labor?

The discussion of this question is deferred until the next congress. There were a number of able and exhaustive papers submitted on this subject which are published in the proceedings. They are worthy of a careful examination.

Question 7. To what extent is prison labor injurious to free labor? How can prison labor be organized to avoid as much as possible complication with free labor?

The discussion of this question is continued until the next congress. The interesting and highly valuable reports on this subject, from various countries, are worthy of profound study.

Question 8. What encouragement can be extended to prisoners in the interest of good discipline, especially to what extent can they be allowed to dispose freely of their earnings?

Discussion continued until the next congress.

Section 3.

Question 1. Should refuges be established for discharged prisoners, and if so, how should they be provided?

On this question the congress adopted a negative conclusion.

Question 2. What would be the best course to follow to secure a regular exchange of lists of convictions between the different States?

Conclusion.—The congress expresses the opinion that a uniform system of exchanged lists of judicial convictions should be adopted in as many countries as possible. To attain this end it is probable that a diplomatic conference should be held.

Until this uniformity is established the exchange of bulletins of sentences could be had between the several Governments by treaties or by simple conventions.

Question 3. Should there be introduced in treaties of extradition a clause for the exchange of prisoners condemned at common law, determined by the treaties?

Conclusions.—The exchange of those condemned to undergo in their original country an imprisonment pronounced by a foreign judge is not practicable; in every case it would not be desirable.

However, in cases where prison instruction would be more difficult, it is desirable that the States having penal and similar institutions should reciprocally accord the right of intrusting the original country with the execution of the punishment, except, it being well understood, the final examination and reimbursement of expenses.

Question 4. What are the most efficient means to prevent and combat vagabondage?

Conclusions.—Public aid should be so regulated that every indigent person should be certain to obtain a living; but only in compensation for work adapted to his condition.

Indigent persons who, notwithstanding this assistance, so regulated, surrender themselves to vagabondage and fall consequently under the provisions of the law, should be severely punished by forced labor in the workhouse.

Question 5. Should visits to prisoners by members of patronage societies or benevolent associations, but strangers to the administration, be allowed and encouraged?

Conclusions.—The Congress is of the opinion that visits to prisoners by members of patronage societies or by members of benevolent associations, but strangers to the administration, should be authorized and encouraged, under regulations to avoid dual influence or authority.

The interview of the visitor with the prisoner should be as free as possible from the presence of the guard.

Question 6. What are the most efficient means to prevent and combat the abuse of alcoholic beverages?

The discussion of this question was only opened. It has been continued by able papers submitted from several countries by eminent writers for the congress in St. Petersburg.

Question 7. According to what principles should schools be established in penal institutions?

Conclusions.—The congress considers that in all prisons for either sex there should exist schools in which there should be taught at least reading, writing, the elements of arithmetic, object lessons, and, if possible, elementary designing.

Besides this there should be given to both sexes a professional education, consisting of an apprenticeship in the arts and trades so that they could earn their living after their discharge.

Question 8. What are the educational methods which should be employed Sundays or week days along with religious instruction?

Conclusions.—The congress expresses the view that prisoners of both sexes on Sundays and week days should be free to choose the occupation which is suitable to them among those at their disposal.

These occupations should be according to the country—reading, music, design, wood-carving, participation in good works, etc.

Attendance at conferences on the elements of morality, of law, and other sciences, according to the special circumstances of the place.

This programme and the conclusions are quite lengthy as compared with those of

London and Stockholm. In point of interest it may be considered the equal of that of Stockholm. The conclusions of these congresses were obtained by vote, which in many cases showed a great variety of opinion. The ideas of the conclusions in many instances have a special European character. The carving in wood and sculpture and designing on Sunday would scarcely find place in an American prison. The American Sunday and that on the continent are widely different in character; and then in the Stockholm conclusions is found the caste idea, shown by the rule laid down that the city child should be taught in institutions city trades or occupations, while the country boy should be taught to follow only the occupation of his parents. No such idea could for an instant be tolerated in America, where equal rights prevail, and where the child from the humblest origin may attain the highest position.

SOUVENIR OF THE CONGRESS OF ROME.

One of the six volumes of the proceedings of the congress of Rome is devoted to brief thoughts and maxims upon prison reform, written by the members for this purpose.

One of the first pages is devoted to the inscriptions which were placed at the entrance of the exposition and which read as follows:

"Virtuti est domare quæ cuncti pavent." This was an inscription placed over the gate of the Rasp house of Amsterdam in 1660. Another was "Parum est coercere improbas pœna, nisi probas efficias disciplina." This inscription was placed over the gate of the house of correction of St. Michael, in Rome, in 1703. And another, "In severitate humanitas." This is in the souvenir album and was the thought of Counselor Pics.

The ancient idea of prisons may be seen in the forbidding aspect, stern and solemn, of the old Newgate stone prison in London, where there is heavily cut in projecting stone a massive chain to terrorize the Jack Shepards of that day. And yet such men as William Penn were confined there as well as Jack Shepard.

A FEW OF THE MAXIMS AND THOUGHTS.

Count d'Olivecrona of Sweden, says:

It is by devoting special care to the education of the young generation and in directing them in the way of religion and civil virtues that we can best secure for the future public safety and social order.

We can not too often repeat that the most sure means to restrain crime or to suppress its causes and relapses are the good education of the young, in view of improving the economic and moral condition of the working classes.

This distinguished writer is a member of the supreme court of Sweden, former professor of law in the University of Upsal, corresponding member of the Institute of France, etc. He was born October 7, 1817.

Mr. J. Stevens, director of the prison of St. Gilles, says:

Life in common, however conducted, completes the corruption of convicts. It is incompatible with their reformation and consequently excludes all hope of reformation.

Mr. Félix Voisin, counselor of the court of appeals of France, says:

Individual imprisonment applied to correctional punishments and consequently to penalties of short duration appears to me to be the only prison system that recom-

mends itself definitely to statesmen. It responds to the real needs of society, since it is desired by the guilty, not perverted, and is dreaded with fear by recidivists. But a steady perseverance in its application is the first condition of its success.

Mr. Adolph Prins, inspector-general of the prisons of Belgium and professor of penal law in the University of Brussels, says:

The ideal prison régime should be, to employ a familiar comparison, like a kind of sieve, which permits little by little, thanks to the regular and methodical sorting, the corrigibles to escape, but inexorably retains incurable criminals.

Mr. Julius Illing, of Berlin, says:

The best prison system will remain ineffectual if you do not find persons sufficiently intelligent and devoted to apply it.

Mr. René Bérenger, senator, and relative of the poet, says:

There can be no efficient reform without a good system of encouragement, compensation during detention, and patronage after liberation.

Edmund F. Du Cane, of England, says:

The right of society to restrain or punish criminals is founded on the right of self preservation, which belongs to everyone.

Any excess in the degree of restraint or punishment is an abuse of this right. Society must justify its right to punish crime by accepting also the duty of doing its utmost to prevent it.

Mr. Frederick Hill, of England, says:

A criminal at large is a double curse, a curse to society and a curse to himself. He is morally diseased, and should be placed under restraint; not for a fixed time, but till he is cured.

Count Pobedonostzeff, of St. Petersburg, says:

It is necessary to concentrate all our efforts on the prevention of crime rather than upon the reform of criminals. * * * In the front rank of preventive measures is the primary school. It is our anchor of safety.

Mr. Louis Bonneville de Marsangy, advocate of Paris, says:

Education makes the man. Consequent upon what it receives, the child becomes a useful citizen or a criminal. The basis of every prison system should be the reformation of abandoned or criminal children.

Mr. Randall, of Michigan, says:

1. Build fewer prisons and more reformatories.
2. Build fewer reformatories and more home schools for abandoned and dependent children.
3. Build fewer schools for the children of the poor by teaching virtue, temperance, and industry in families.

Eugénie, Princess d'Oldenburg, of Russia, says:

It is desirable that during his long detention they should make to shine like a beacon in the eyes of the prisoner the hope that when his just punishment has ended he will have again the power to become an honest man and a useful member to his country and to society.

This is the distinguished lady of the imperial family who joined with her husband, the prince, in extending so many courtesies to the members of the Congress of St. Petersburg.

Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, of Russia, says:

Religion and labor—behold the strongest agents for the prevention of crime. It is upon them that prison reform should be based, of which the true end is to combat relapses.

Barwick Baker, of England, says:

We should study carefully to give the maximum of deterrence with the minimum of pain, and the maximum of reformation with the minimum of incarceration.

Our system of progressive punishment, giving on the first conviction of an ordinary offense 1 month in a separate prison, explaining that a second will entail 6 months in a separate cell and 3 or 4 years of friendly aid and supervision, while a third will bring 5 years of penal servitude, with a longer supervision, produces the effect we require.

Mr. Baker, one of the highest authorities in penology, died since the congress of Rome.

Mr. Serge de Yakowlew, of Russia, says:

One of the bases of the progress of humanity is the substitution of educational institutions for young delinquents, instead of prisons.

Mr. F. D. Mouat, of London, says:

Prison reform stands in the same relation to prison discipline that prevention does to curative measures in medicine. The former influences whole communities in relation to crime and criminals. The latter affects only the individual to whom it is applied, and too often fails in any good influence even upon him. Therefore prison reform should aim rather at prevention than cure.

These few selections must serve as examples of the many thoughts and maxims that are published in the Album. Some were written in Italian, Spanish, and German, but they were mainly in French, the official language of the congress. There is a similar souvenir album in preparation for the Congress of St. Petersburg.

THE EXPOSITION OF PRISON LABOR IN ROME.

On the occasion of the International Prison Congress of Rome the executive committee organized an exposition relative to the construction and furnishing of prisons. It comprised models of building materials in brick and cement for walls, pavements, and roofs, and samples of articles for the personal use of the prisoners, and clothing and arms for the guards. There were samples of irons and other instruments used for punishment in different prisons and for different classes of prisoners. There were types of locks, apparatus for disinfection, samples of grates for windows, and doors for cells. There were models in relief and designs of some of the most noted prisons in the different States which took part in the congress. Near this exposition were three large halls, where were completed in true proportions types of the highest perfected cells in Europe and America.

Some articles were sent directly to the committee. There were thus collected doors, grates, furniture, and tools from the most distant countries, exactly in imitation of those in use in the respective institu-

tions. The exposition contained twenty-eight cells belonging to sixteen States, and were placed in three halls. The first contained sixteen cells; one of the prison of Fribourg, Baden; one of the prison of Lenzbourg, Switzerland; one of the prison of Langholmen, Sweden; one from the prison of Aakeberg, Norway; types adopted in England and France, Nuremberg, Bavaria, the Italian establishments of Milan, Lucques, Tivoli, St. Michael in Rome, Pérouse, Pallance, Alexandria, and finally the ancient prison called the Pits of Venice, representing the type of prisons of the Middle Ages.

The second corridor had seven cells, belonging to the prisons of Horsens and Vridslöselille, Denmark; the prison of St. Gilles, Brussels; the prison of Szeged, Hungary; the house of arrest of St. Petersburg; the prison of Carlau, Austria, and the prison of Rotterdam, Netherlands.

In the third corridor were cells from the prison in Madrid, the prison in Philadelphia, the reformatory in Concord, Mass., and the Italian prison of Volterre.

In a contiguous court were two manikins, one representing an Italian convict at hard labor in his working dress for outdoors, and the other his guard with uniform and arms.

Each cell was furnished complete with all articles and tools ordinarily required. Manikins clothed in prison costume were placed in the cells and others in the corridors near each door, representing guards in their different uniforms and arms.

A detailed description was given in the proceedings of the exhibit of each nation, but must be omitted here.

The exhibit was large and interesting, in which fourteen governments were well represented, viz: England, Baden, Bavaria, Belgium, Denmark, Spain, the United States of America, France, Hungary, Norway, Netherlands, Russia, Sweden, and Switzerland. There were many exhibits from the United States, but the greater part did not arrive until after the close of the exposition. However, there were in the second group articles of clothing and others manufactured for men, women, and children; in the fourth group there were chains for ships; in the fifth gilt borders for chairs and straw carpets; in the sixth bound books, and in the seventh doll furniture. These were made and sent by the Philadelphia prison, whose inspectors took great interest in making the exhibit. These were only a small part of the articles sent from America, and if they had arrived in time the exhibit would have been large, and would have shown the great success in our country in prison work.

An account of the products of prison labor in the exposition covers many pages, and it is impossible to present even a summary of the large exhibit here.

DR. ENOCH C. WINES.

About 395 pages in one volume of the proceedings of the Congress of Rome is devoted to brief biographies with portraits of men and women who have become eminent in prison reform. Among the prominent are John Howard and Mary Carpenter, of England; Baccaria, of Italy; De Metz, of France; Catherine II, of Russia; Oscar I, of Sweden, and Livingstone, Penn, and Wines, of the United States.

The name of Dr. Enoch C. Wines is so closely associated with the history and labors of the International Prison Congress and prison reform generally that a brief notice of his life and works is transferred to this report.

Enoch C. Wines was born in New Jersey, the 17th day of February, 1806, of parents of Welch origin, who emigrated to America before the War of Independence. His father was a farmer, and young Wines worked with his parents until the age of 15 years. Soon after he entered the university, passing creditable examinations, and was made a doctor of divinity and doctor of laws in 1827.

The following year he opened, at Washington, a school which he left in 1829 to accept a position as professor on board the school-ship *Constellation*, which was to cruise in the Mediterranean. This voyage enabled him to learn the languages of the principal countries of southern Europe, and on his return to America he published, in 1832, his first literary work in two volumes, under the title of "Two years and a half in the American marine." In 1833 the eminent scholar, Robert Patton, his professor of Greek and superintendent of the Seminary of Edgehill, at Princeton, N. J., having died, Dr. Wines succeeded him and became the proprietor of the institution.

Six years after he was named professor in a public college founded in Philadelphia at the expense of the city for the purpose of giving a high education to the best scholars of the city schools.

During his career of nearly 20 years as professor he published several volumes upon education and several remarkable essays in different reviews and a great number of articles in the journals upon the same subject. He published also an important work under the title "Commentaries on the Laws of the Ancient Hebrews," and many works on theology, having served the church during six years, from 1849, in the capacity of pastor. In 1859 he was called to the management of an educational institution in the State of Missouri and occupied the position two years.

In 1861 civil war broke out in America and Dr. Wines returned to New York, where he accepted the duties of secretary of the prison association of New York, and began then the most remarkable work of his life, the reform of prisons.

He devoted himself first to improving the revenues of the association, increasing them from $2,000 to $10,000. In 1869 he proposed to the association the calling in one of the capitals of Europe an interna-

tional congress to study the questions which relate to the prevention and repression of crime, but for fear of failure his project was not approved.

Dr. Wines was not discouraged, and on his appeal there met, in October, 1870, in Cincinnati, Ohio, a national congress, which, under the presidency of Hon. R. B. Hayes, then Governor of that State and since President of the United States, called together many distinguished citizens, directors of prisons, reform schools, etc. Among the important resolutions of that congress was one to the effect that the time had come when an international prison congress could be called with good chances of success.

Convinced that in the congress the coöperation of two elements, official and non-official, was necessary, Dr. Wines obtained, through a Congressional appropriation and appointment from President Grant, the authority as a commissioner delegated to the international congress proposed by him, and, furnished with his appointment and a circular letter, he addressed himself to all our foreign ministers to obtain their assistance. Provided with letters from high officials he embarked in July, 1871, for Europe, where, acting in harmony with specialists of the different countries, he succeeded in organizing the first International Prison Congress of London, which met in July, 1872.

The success of the congress is well known. It had nearly 400 members—nearly 100 official delegates from different governments or from English colonies. Before adjournment the Congress of London formed an international prison commission charged with organizing the second congress, and Dr. Wines was made president of this commission.

As president he organized the congress of Stockholm which took place in August, 1878, and it is to his efforts and labors, to his indefatigable zeal for prison reform we owe the durable and substantial work of the two congresses of which he was promoter.

During six years consecrated to this humane work, he made numerous voyages between Europe and America, and published many annual reports containing the discussions and the most important information relative to prison reform and the care and education of abandoned children.

December 10, 1879, when, notwithstanding his age of 79 years, he gave hopes that for a long time to come his energetic perseverance and his zeal, his knowledge and his experience, would yet benefit the work of prison reform, he suddenly died, at Cambridge, Mass., where he had just made a final supervision of the publication of his last and greatest work on "The State of Prisons and Child-saving Institutions" throughout the world. The indefatigable apostle of prison reform in two worlds, he had bravely conquered his place among the most eminent philanthropists of our age, and his death is not only a painful loss to his own country but to all the civilized world.

Were the materials at hand it would be a great pleasure to place here

another biography, that of Dr. Guillaume, of Switzerland, the very able and efficient secretary general of the international prison commission, and the secretary general of the congress of Stockholm, Rome, and St. Petersburg. Since the death of Dr. Wines no one has more efficiently and ably assisted in the organization and operations of the third and fourth congresses. Modest, zealous, intelligent, well versed in at least the French, German, and English languages, he has been, to a great extent, the organizer and promoter of the last two congresses. He was for years on most intimate terms with Dr. Wines, from whom he received his first training and instruction in the organization of international congresses in Neufchâtel, his own home, where he was for a long time director of the prison and enjoyed a high reputation as prison official. He has for some years been director of statistics for the Republic of Switzerland in the state buildings in Berne. The writer is indebted to him for many kind courtesies in St. Petersburg, and by his invitation spent a day with him in Berne. He had a very interesting experience in visiting the various Government offices, the two legislative halls, the state prison, and a child's institution in the suburbs, including a call on the President of the Republic, M. Louis Ruchannet, who has occupied that position for 15 years, and also a call on the Russian minister at the Russian legation. On that occasion the minister, having previously sent for Dr. Guillaume, presented him, in behalf of the Emperor of Russia, a large gold snuff box, of great value, literally covered with diamonds, the monogram of the Emperor being in large letters formed of diamonds on the cover. This was sent as a testimonial of the appreciation of the Emperor for the arduous and successful labors of the secretary general, and the tribute could not have been more worthily bestowed.

May he long be spared to carry on the work of our lamented Dr. Wines.

FESTIVALS AND BANQUETS.

The same national, official, and government courtesies were extended to the Congress of Rome as were shown in Stockholm in 1878. These included an excursion to Tivoli, a reception given by the prefect of Rome and Madam Gravina, marchioness, at the palace of the prefect; a gala representation at the theater Costanzi, as guests of the Italian commission, the play being the opera Carmen; a banquet at the capital, extended by the Italian commission; a reception at the Quirinal; a visit to the normal school and gardens; a visit to the penitentiary Regina-Coeli; a visit to the penitentiary colony of "Trois-Fontaines," and a visit to the penitentiary colony of Castiadas (in Sardinia).

The reception at the Quirinal was of special interest, as it was to meet the King and Queen of Italy on invitation of the Queen, as follows:

Il preffetto di Palazzo e la Dama d' onore della Regina d' ordine delle Loro Maestà, hanno l' onere d' invitare il Signor ———— al pranzo di Corte per il giorno di lunedì 23 novembre 1885 alle ore 6 pomeridiane.

At the hour named a brilliant and large gathering met at the Quirinal, and the delegates grouped by nationality were successively presented by Senator Canonico to the King and Queen, who entertained all in a very amiable manner. After this the royal banquet was served, and then the guests spent some hours in familiar conversation in the sumptuous salons of the royal palace, pleased with their entertainment.

A description of these courtesies covers many pages in the proceedings of the congress, and while they do not of themselves furnish information relative to prison reform, they do exhibit the interest of the Government in the subject and show the highest respect for the eminent gentlemen then present in Rome to discuss its problems.

There were only two American reports presented at this Congress. One was a brief history of prison reform in this country by "M. B." The full name of the author is not given, and is not known to the writer. It is a report of about 18 pages, and is a valuable and interesting summary.

The other report was by C. D. Randall, of Coldwater, Michigan, and the subject was the following section of the programme:

What authority should the judge have to commit young delinquents to houses of correction or of reform, either where they have been discharged as having acted without discernment, or where they are sentenced to imprisonment?

The programme and conclusions of the Congress of Rome fail to indicate the vast fund of information relating to prison construction and management found in the reports and discussions. Only by reading the extensive proceedings can the value of the work at Rome be understood. They can only be suggested here with the hope that prison officials in this country will in time be benefited by reading them.

While the conclusions adopted in this and other congresses show the drift of the thought of the majority, they need not be considered as unquestioned authority, as other congresses may modify them. The repeated discussions will tend to perfect conclusions, so that in time penology may become almost one of the exact sciences.

ADVANCE OPINIONS ON THE ST. PETERSBURG CONGRESS.

There are no gentlemen in this country more qualified to speak on the importance of the congress than the writers of the following letters, which were addressed to the writer of this report:

THE NEW YORK STATE REFORMATORY,
Elmira, N. Y., February 1, 1890.

MY DEAR SIR: Yours 25th. It is scarcely possible to exaggerate the importance of prison reform in the true and rationalistic sense of the term. The increase of crimes and criminals is fast becoming a public menace, and the principles and methods necessary to stay its progress are of the greatest value for creating a correct public sense of the wisdom and mercy of that universal moral government under which we all are. It has been said that the civilization of an age may be ascertained by finding how society treats the criminals offending against her laws.

The cost and contamination of crimes also appeal to philanthropists to devise some relief by way of reformation of criminals.

There is no way to avoid the consideration of crime and criminals, for they force, painfully force, their care upon us.

Great good must arise from the world's congresses and especially that one to be held at St. Petersburg this year.

Europeans have a prison or penological literature. We have none. The best minds of Europe are carefully studying criminal anthropology or psychology; their writings serving to elevate and educate our ideas.

I greatly hope there may be a large and influential delegation from America; one to return freighted with valuable facts and encouragement for us all.

Truly,

Z. R. BROCKWAY.

The following is from the Rev. Fred. H. Wines, secretary of the State Board of Charities of Illinois, and former secretary of the National Prison Association of the United States, of which ex-President Hayes is the president. The Rev. Mr. Wines has not only a national but an international reputation as a specialist in penology and writer and speaker in that science, which does not need the name of his distinguished father to make him known. He has lately been in charge of the United States census department relating to the statistics of pauperism and crime.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *March* 3, 1890.

DEAR SIR: On my arrival in Washington, after a tour among the prisons of this country which has lasted for nearly two months past, I find your letters. * * *

I have done all in my power to awaken interest in the St. Petersburg Congress on the part of the American public. The National Prison Congress at Nashville passed, at my suggestion, a resolution favoring it, and I send you by this mail a copy of the proceedings of the board of directors, in which you will find this resolution on page 10. I have presented it to the President and to the Secretary of State, and am assured of their interest in the congress and their desire to see it successful and influential for good in Russia and throughout the world.

I do not know what I could say commending this congress that would be of special value. The entire movement was the work of my father, and the crowning glory of his laborious and useful life.

I have been in correspondence with the international commission during all these years, and have felt the deepest concern for the coöperation of America and of the United States Government in the work which they are attempting to accomplish.

I am, as always, very sincerely yours,

FRED. H. WINES.

From the proceedings of the board of directors of the National Prison Association held in Nashville, Tenn., in November, 1889, the following is taken.

Ex-President Rutherford B. Hayes introduced the following resolutions, which were adopted:

Resolved, That it is the unanimous wish of the National Prison Association that the President and Congress of the United States shall respond favorably to the invitation of the Russian Government to this country to be represented in the International Penitentiary Congress in St. Petersburg in June, 1890, by filling the vacancy existing in the international penitentiary commission and providing for representation in the congress.

Resolved, That the secretary of the association be instructed to communicate this action to the President and to the Secretary of State.

STATE HALL,
Albany, N. Y., February 17, 1890.

MY DEAR SIR: It is hardly necessary to urge upon a person of your ripe experience in prison reform and preventive work the importance of personal association and of discussion by those specially interested in the reformation of criminals, or having practical knowledge relating thereto.

The great advance that has been made in prison reform within the last quarter of a century, even in the last decade, leads one to indulge in the most hopeful expectations of the future, should the unselfish and earnest efforts that have been put forth in the past be continued. I think that it must be conceded, that while the organization devoted to the work in the several States and the National Prison Association of America have accomplished a great deal, much of the good they have done has been through the stimulus imparted by the several international prison congresses that have from time to time been held, in which the discussions were extended to broader fields. I therefore trust that you will use your influence to promote, in every way, the success of the international prison congress, which it is proposed to hold in St. Petersburg. The attendance of delegates should include representatives from every civilized country. There are special reasons, which must be obvious to all familiar with the subject, why the forthcoming world's congress should be so constituted as to present the most advanced views upon the important subject of penology.

The location of this congress in Russia is especially significant of the progress of prison reform. It evinces a spirit on the part of that nation to invite the fullest discussion of all prison questions in that country and elsewhere. It is to be hoped that one of the most brilliant results of the coming congress will be to hasten the day when the Russian system of transportation to Siberia, the rigors and severities of which are now attracting the attention of the civilized world, will happily be a thing of the past.

I am, my dear sir, yours with great respect,

WM. P. LETCHWORTH,
Commissioner State Board of Charities.

EDUCATION AND CRIME.

Learned essays have been written for many years on the subject and yet the exact position of education as a preventive of crime has not been fully determined.

Education will always be an important factor in the reduction of crime and pauperism. It is impossible to show by statistics the full effects of education in this respect. The statistics bearing on this question are very meager and unsatisfactory. The movement in the International Prison Congresses for international penitentiary statistics may in time secure a more thorough and extended system of statistics in each State. Enough, however, has been shown to demonstrate that ignorance is one of the important causes of crime. But the statistics taken have generally been with no settled rule as to what the education should be to prevent the tendency to crime. And then our idea of a true and rounded education has been much changed within a few years. At one time a knowledge of literature, languages, mathematics, etc., as in the college course, was considered as furnishing a perfect edu-

cation. Other elements have of late been introduced, and the student may now give preference to the natural sciences and technical education without loss of educational caste.

George William Curtis lately said at the reunion at Brown University:

The American college is now required to train American citizens. * * * With one hand it shall lead the young American to the secrets of material skill; it shall equip him to enter into the fullest trade with all the world, but with the other it shall lead him to lofty thought and to commerce with the skies. The college shall teach him the secret and methods of material success, * * * but it shall admonish him that man shall not live by bread alone and that the things which are eternal are unseen.

The education which will best prevent crime must be that which will afford the recipient a means of living. Governments have begun to recognize this. General Eaton, formerly Commissioner of Education, in an address said:

Education in industry is a safeguard against crime. France has forty centers of industrial education connected with the public system of Paris. The London school board has forty centers of cookery; there are eighteen schools for training nurses. Boston has put sewing in the grammar schools for girls with success. Boston proposes a center of joinery on the plan of the industrial schools of Paris. Intelligence and good character should be universal. Everyone should have the spirit to acquire excellence and to do the best in whatever he undertakes. No child can be turned over to neglect and waste. A single child of neglect may become the parent of descendants filling by the hundred institutions of pauperism and crime. Any child may save his country.

Hon. William T. Harris, in an able paper on compulsory education, says:

Now, any one of the educational agencies may fail absolutely to prevent crime. But social science does not find other recourse than to strive to make more efficient these agencies—improve the family nurture, improve the school, the trades, the vocations, the partisan politics, the Sunday school. All these instrumentalities are very crude, as one may easily see, in their present condition. The question which immediately concerns us is the improvement of the common-school education as preventive of crime, by making it more effective in reaching all the children of the community.

The following statement from a pamphlet from the Industrial Education Association of New York at this time shows the position of Russia in industrial education:

Unquestionably, the Russian technologic system, as taught in the school of mechanic arts in Boston and elsewhere, if introduced into the reform and industrial schools of this country, would result in far greater progress than has been attained.

The increase of intelligence civilizes and restrains vicious tendencies, cultivates the taste and desire for pure associations, makes vice hideous and virtue attractive. The child reared under elevating influences will quickly shrink from everything which lowers and degrades. Hence, in the very nature of things, the higher, more practical, and more moral is the training and education, the better and stronger in all that is good, virtuous, and great will be the man.

PART II.

THE FOURTH INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS.

THE PREPARATION.

As president of the International Prison Commission and as the chief of the official delegates in the Congress of Rome, Mr. Wraskoy had extended the invitation of Russia to hold the fourth congress in St. Petersburg, which had been unanimously accepted.

Continuing as president of the commission, and having been appointed president of the local commission of organization, and being the chief of the Russian prison administration, he brought to the discharge of his duties in organizing the congress his powers and influence in these various associations, and, in all, was strongly and warmly supported by his Government. It might be said that the local commission of organization was really the Russian Government acting through him.

As president, he had charge of the invitations, and during the interval of five years he sent many letters and circulars explaining the preparations in progress, solicited reports on the questions of the programme and the sending of exhibits to the exposition.

A selection from these circulars is presented here, as well as extracts from his address relative to the object of the congress.

The following circular letter was sent principally to those who assisted in, or sent papers to, the Congress of Rome:

COMMITTEE OF ORGANIZATION OF THE
FOURTH INTERNATIONAL PENITENTIARY CONGRESS,
St. Petersburg, December 31, 1888—(January 12, 1889).

HONORED SIR: Though the programme of questions which will be discussed in the coming International Prison Congress has been published in the bulletin of the commission, we take the liberty to address you personally, making a direct appeal for your valuable coöperation in treating one of the questions in the capacity of reporter. If, as we hope, you will accept these duties, please advise us, indicating the question you have chosen and the time when you think you will be able to deliver the manuscript, which will be printed in the bulletin of the International Penitentiary Commission. A separate impression of these reports will be made in sufficient numbers for distribution among members of the congress, and there will be given to the authors twenty to thirty copies free, and others should they desire.

Should you wish to collect statistical and other information, which you may judge necessary to elucidate the question you have chosen, we undertake to send such interrogatories as you may make to different countries, to the members of the permanent penitentiary commission, or to its correspondents.

M. GALKINE-WRASKOY.

The commission of organization hopes that you will assist at the congress, and that all reporters, especially, will come to St. Petersburg. At the same time it is understood that in accepting the task of writing a report upon one or another of the questions of the programme no one engages to undertake the voyage. The commission of organization will be obliged to all who contribute in one way or another to the preparatory work of the congress, but it will be yet more grateful if all those to whom this appeal is addressed will accept the invitation to take part in the congress.

The congress, as you are aware, honored sir, meets in 1890 in St. Petersburg at the beginning of June, the epoch of the anniversary of the death of John Howard, who died at Cherson, January 20, 1790. The day for the opening of the congress has not been definitely named. The details will be communicated to you in time, as well as other necessary information, such as the facilities for the journey, which will be accorded to strangers who favor us with their presence. We can already say to you that for facilities and conveniences of travel and for the sojourn in Russia, the commission of organization will adopt the programme followed when the International Statistical Congress was in St. Petersburg, which was generally satisfactory to the members of that reunion.

We profit by this occasion to recall the fact that when the reunion of the International Prison Commission was held in Berne in 1885, M. Beltrania-Scalia, one of the commissioners, announced that the managers of the "Rivista di Discipline Carcerarie" proposed to put in competition for the congress of St. Petersburg a penitentiary question and to allow for this purpose the sum of 2,000 francs, which will be placed in the hands of a jury to compensate the author of the memoir to whom the award is made. The prize will be awarded at the coming congress and the memoir will be published in the proceedings of the Congress of St. Petersburg.

The International Penitentiary Commission expresses its sincere thanks to Mr. Beltrani-Scalia, director of the "Rivista," to whom belongs the honor of initiating this generous proposition.

It is possible that this example will be followed by prison societies and similar associations, as well as by individuals, and that in this way a number of questions will find their solution at the prison Congress of St. Petersburg.

On its part, the committee of organization, considering the wish expressed in the International Prison Commission, has decided:

1. To offer a prize for the best essay on the life and work of John Howard.

2. To organize an international exposition of the products of the labor of prisoners undergoing cellular imprisonment, also for correctional establishments devoted to young delinquents. There shall be admitted in one section of the exposition all objects manufactured in shops, which Governments desire to exhibit to show the progress realized in their country since the Congress of Rome.

3. The commission of organization also proposes to give, during the congress, by the men most qualified in the science of penology, a series of public conferences upon the historical development and actual condition of penal legislation, of the discipline of prisons, and the means for preventing crime.

4. The commission of organization has considered it desirable to inform the members of the congress as to the state of prison architecture and the method of transportation of prisoners in Russia. To this end it will prepare a collection of plans of Russian prisons, ancient and modern, designs representing station houses, wagons, transportation boats, etc., serving for the transportation of prisoners.

In a word, the commission of organization will neglect nothing to interest as much as possible those persons who assist in the congress, and to render their sojourn in Russia agreeable.

But as our principal end is to render the results of the congress as fruitful and practicable as possible, we need the assistance of all the eminent men who met at Rome, Stockholm, and London, or who, not being able to attend those meetings, have

labored to realize the object we seek. The committee of organization addresses you personally, honored sir, and counts on your valuable assistance and on your intelligent coöperation.

We thank you in advance, and present you, honored sir and colleague, with the assurance of our high consideration.

In the name of the commission of organization.

GALKINE-WRASKOY,
President.

Fourth International Penitentiary Congress of St. Petersburg, 1890.

ST. PETERSBURG, *March* 28 (*April* 9), 1889.

To the Direction of the Correctional Establishment
of ——— ———:

To the Director:

The commission of organization of the approaching International Penitentiary Congress, which will take place at the beginning of June, 1890, proposes to organize an international exposition of objects relating to correctional establishments devoted to young delinquents, and to vicious, vagabond, and abandoned children.

This exposition is for the purpose of presenting to the eyes of those who take part in the congress the organization and interior life of typical institutions of different countries and the results obtained.

Desiring earnestly that the institution in your charge will participate in this exposition, we take the liberty to send you the accompanying interrogatories, asking you to accede to our wishes and to reply favorably to our requests.

Finally, to render participation in this exposition as little burdensome as possible to the exhibitors, the committee of organization charges itself with all the expenses of transportation, coming and going, so that the establishments which reply to the interrogatories and send to St. Petersburg the objects and documents indicated in the annexed, will not be required to pay the expenses.

It is with great confidence that the commission of organization addresses you this invitation. It has a strong hope that you will not decline to give your valuable assistance, and that you will contribute to organize this exposition, which will afford a comparative study of the best organized correctional establishments in the different countries of the civilized world.

Please, in acknowledging the receipt of this, to indicate to us the approximate time of sending the answers to the interrogatories and the objects you design for the exposition. Accept, Mr. Director, the assurance of our most distinguished consideration.

In the name of the commission of organization of the Fourth International Penitentiary Congress.

GALKINE-WRASKOY,
Chief of the General Administration of Prisons,
Place of the Theater Alexander, St. Petersburg.

Address of his excellency Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, delegate from Russia, president of the International Penitentiary Commission, at a session of that body in Geneva, September 30, 1889.

GENTLEMEN and DEAR COLLEAGUES: First let me thank you very sincerely for responding to our appeal and meeting us at this conference. Several of our members have announced with regret their inability to join us, but most of them declare that they assent in advance to all that will be decided, in view of the success of the work you have undertaken, and the mission you have to carry forward.

I am greatly rejoiced to welcome you, but this joy is clouded by the thought of the

two losses we have sustained in our number since our reunion in Berne. I refer to the death of Almquist [inspector-general of the prisons of Sweden] and Holtzendorf [baron, professor at the University of Munich and former vice president of the commission]. You knew both and learned to love and respect them. Baron Holtzendorf was the soul of the commission; it was he who had inspired its organization, and now that he is no more he leaves a void which would be difficult to fill.

In the journey which I made in last January with the view to accelerate the advance of the preparatory work of the congress, I visited Munich and found all very confident in the future of our work. Assured there, I continued my journey, which was not finished when I heard the sad news of the death of the baron. Our executive committee, on behalf of the commission, has sent letters of condolence to the two mourning families. Desiring to-day to render homage to the memory of our brothers I invite you to rise. * * *

Let us pass on to the subject of our reunion. Though detailed reports of the management will be communicated to you I consider it my duty at this time to refer to some of the preparatory work. First, in regard to the material for discussion. There are ninety-eight reports named in the programme, and at this date only thirty-two have been received. There may be some to supply, and I urge you to insist that the reporters hasten to send their papers. The second point to which I desire equally to draw your attention concerns the penitentiary exposition. The invitation to take part in this exposition was made by me in the name of the commission of organization (circular, January 12, 1889), and then by the Imperial Government. My circular of January 12 contains all the information necessary on the industrial exposition. Special and detailed interrogatories have been sent to correctional institutions, public and private. The object is to assure the success of the special exposition of all that relates to correctional education. But aside from some isolated responses we have not yet the assurance of a large and general participation in this work, of which the interest seems to be unanimously recognized. We doubt not the favorable welcome which our invitation has had from high Governments, but as time presses we are anxious to have the information necessary, so that we may do all that may be to satisfy every one.

We offer to pay the expenses of transportation, going and coming, on objects for the exposition.

For our use we have the building for military purposes in which were installed the expositions which have taken place in St. Petersburg. The space at our disposal is 5,000 square metres.

We should know what space we have to reserve for each of the exhibitors and to fix the time when the articles should arrive at their destination.

Taking into consideration the climate of St. Petersburg we have fixed for the opening of the congress the 3d (15th) of June, 1890. Consequently the objects for the exposition should be sent not later than May 1, but in order to systematize the work of opening and to prevent delay in the publication of the catalogue we request the exhibitors to send us a list of the articles at least by April 1. Relative to the catalogue I will say that we desire to render it as instructive as possible, and to this end we propose to insert all information on the exhibits as set forth in my circular of January 12. Consequently it is urgent that you send us this information with the list of the products. We desire also to obtain from you the continuation of the publications which were commenced for the Congress of Rome; notably the notices upon the development of the penal and prison system of your country from the time of the Congress of Rome until the present and a list of new works relative to prisons for the same period. But above all I desire to call your attention to the question of international penitentary statistics. To this end I propose to send a circular to all the members of the commission and to the official delegates named by the different Governments.

We request your kind approval in addressing special invitations to the congress. This list should include:

1. The official delegates.

2. Persons eminent in penal and penitentiary science, whose presence would do honor to the congress, and persons distinguished by their practical experience, whose assistance would be useful in the congress.

We ask you to name these persons and authorize us to extend the invitations. The persons you indicate will receive personal cards, which will extend all facilities possible. We have obtained from the railroads of Russia a reduction of 50 per cent. and some steps have been taken through diplomatic sources to obtain a reduction of fares on foreign railroads.

Having set forth these steps, we hope that you will do all you can in your own countries to secure favorable responses. We should also examine a question, which I have already made the subject of my circular of April 9, 1889, whether there should be, as in preceding congresses, a charge for admission. The commission of organization has been disposed to accord free access to the congress, but has withheld a decision, leaving it to the International Penitentiary Commission to decide this question.

You have already been informed of the international competition opened by the Russian Government (a prize of 2,000 francs) for the best essay on the work of John Howard in prison reform, and also of the prize (in the same amount) offered by our eminent colleague M. Beltrani-Scalia, in behalf of his journal, La Revista di Discipline Carcerarie. The idea of competition for a prize proposed by M. Beltrani-Scalia at our session in Berne has been followed, as you will remember, by another proposition by our esteemed secretary-general, to organize public conferences on the principal questions of penology. The proposition has likewise been adopted. We expect a brilliant success from these conferences, and you will expect this when I tell you that MM. Beltrani-Scalia, De Jagemann, De Liszt, and Koni, one of my countrymen, will severally act as president at the sessions.

In reference to the sojourn of the members of congress at St. Petersburg, we will have the honor, in due time, to do everything possible for their assistance.

At present I can announce that the members of the congress who receive personal cards of invitation will be invited to visit Moscow and take part in the jubilee of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the most ancient reformatory institution in Russia, the asylum of Roukavichnikoff. As a general rule in Russia only semi-centennial jubilees are celebrated, but His Majesty the Emperor, desiring to render homage to the congress, which has assumed the task to consider especially questions of correctional education, has graciously been pleased to make an exception to this regulation.

Finland also invites the members of the congress to an excursion to Helsingfors.

Finally, following the example of the Congress of Rome, commemorative medals will be presented to the members of congress.

Such in brief are the observations which I have to present to you and the points I wish to bring out before receiving the report on the order of business.

Again I extend to you a cordial welcome and declare opened the session for 1889.

Circular relative to international statistics of correctional institutions.

ST. PETERSBURG, *October* 1, 1889.

SIR AND HONORED COLLEAGUE: You are not ignorant that one of the questions considered by the International Prison Congress was the organization of a system of international penitentiary statistics. The efforts which have been made in this direction by our eminent colleague M. Beltrani-Scalia are too well known to urge its importance.

But as the statistics prepared by M. Beltrani-Scalia have not been followed by other similar publications, the illustrious author has called the attention of the committee of organization of the Fourth International Penitentiary Congress to the necessity of beginning this work, of which the importance has been unanimously recognized. In continuation of this work the commission has inserted in the programme of the congress the question relating to international penitentiary statistics, and M. Beltrani-Scalia has kindly charged himself with reporting thereon to the congress.

Earnestly hoping that the resolutions of the Congress of St. Petersburg, by report on statistics, will give favorable and practical results in this branch of the study of comparative penology, the commission in the mean time, without waiting for the resolutions of the congress, can make an effort in international penitentiary statistics which will find its place in the proceedings of the congress. The subject of this effort has already been indicated by the special attention that the commission has given to the questions relative to young delinquents and vicious and abandoned children. A special exposition, richly provided with information and embracing all that pertains to the management of correctional institutions, will facilitate, I hope, for the specialists met at St. Petersburg, the comparative study of the success which has been obtained in this vast and fertile branch of penitentiary reform. If, along with a full description of this exposition, there can be inserted in the proceedings of the congress the international statistics of correctional institutions for 1889, we may rejoice in having attained a result worthy of the illustrious assembly which meets at St. Petersburg in 1890.

These considerations have led the commission to send you the enclosed questions, urging you, most honored colleague, to please supply the statistics relative to the year 1889, and to send them to us or bring them at the opening of the Congress.

The commission hopes that you will fully enter into these views and save it from seeing in an international publication the omission of the correctional establishments of your country.

Please, sir, and most honored colleague, accept the assurance of my high regards.

GALKINE-WRASKOY.

CIRCULAR.

To the members of the International Prison Commission and to official delegates.

ST. PETERSBURG, *October* 15, 1889.

SIR AND HONORED COLLEAGUE: I have the honor to send you the proceedings of the sessions of the commission held in Geneva September 30 and October 1 and 2 last, for completing, with the commission on organization, the arrangements to insure the success of the coming International Prison Congress.

This success is certain if the commission of organization is actively seconded by all official delegates and by all persons interested in the enterprise.

You will see by the accompanying documents that the number of reporters has reached a figure relatively high, and this is a subject of congratulation. At the same time it is important that the reports should be delivered, if possible, before the day fixed, either before the end of the year—those which must be translated and those which are written in French before February 1.

We urge you to recommend to your countrymen, who are in the list of reporters, to hasten their work as much as possible.

Although an invitation to take part in the work of the congress and to assist in person has been sent to all who assisted in former congresses, the commission of organization has proposed to address a list of persons who in each country have acquired a just celebrity in penal and penitentiary science and in the domain of the prevention of crime. The International Penitentiary Commission is favorable to this

idea, and we request you to communicate to us the names and titles of your countrymen who should appear in this list. A special invitation will be addressed to them.

Among the exhibits proposed for the congress, those which relate to correctional education, especially for young men and young girls, have received general assent, judging from the information we have received from different countries and the number of institutions of this kind preparing to send to St. Petersburg all documents capable of giving a correct idea of their organization and the results obtained.

We desire to have you obtain a list of establishments in your country which will take part in the special exposition of reform schools. We take the liberty to recommend to you especially this exposition, and wish you to assist the directors of these establishments, so that the exposition from your country will be as complete as possible, and that the list of articles and the exhibits themselves be sent, if possible, before the dates indicated.

We draw your attention to the accompanying circular, which goes with the interrogatories relative to the statistics of correctional establishments. We recommend this inquiry to your careful attention, to the end that we may be able to group all the information we receive and to publish in the proceedings of the congress the international statistics of houses of correction especially devoted to young men and young girls. These statistics will complete the work which will be elaborated on the exhibits of these institutions.

For the purpose of facilitating the journey to St. Petersburg of those who attend the congress and whom we desire to assist at this reunion, we have requested and obtained upon all the lines of railroad in Russia a reduction of 50 per cent. upon the cost of tickets. It is desirable that a reduction be also accorded by the railroad companies of other countries and steamboats on the Baltic. Permit us to call your attention to this point and to the discussion of this question in the proceedings of the commission.

We urge you to use your influence to overcome all difficulties foreseen and to aid us in all steps to be taken to arrive at the desired result.

We hope you will find in your country some persons who will take part, first, in the competition for the prize offered by the Imperial Government of Russia upon the rôle of John Howard in the history of prison reform, and secondly in the competition for the prize offered by the direction of the "Rivisita di discipline carcerie" upon the following question: "What has been, in the divers states of the civilized world, the historical development of institutions designed for the correctional education of minors convicted for common offenses, and imprisoned for the purpose of paternal correction or for idleness, mendicity, and vagabondage?"

Although the fact of this competition for prizes has received great publicity, it may be that those persons who are able to treat one or the other of these questions have no knowledge concerning them, and we request you to communicate the programme to all those who, in your country, might place themselves on the list as competitors. We earnestly desire that the competition will secure the sending of numerous and interesting works on the subjects named.

Dear sir and honored colleague, please accept the assurance of my very high consideration.

GALKINE-WRASKOY.

THE SUBJECTS AND THE REPORTERS AS LAST ANNOUNCED.

SECTION I.—*Legislation.*

1. By what process and to what extent can there be secured for the different countries the same designation and precise definition of violations of penal law to be used in acts or treaties of extradition?

Reporters.—Dr. W. Starke, superior private counselor of the minister of justice in Berlin; Joseph Reynaud, chief of the bureau of the minister of the interior (France),

secretary of the superior council of prisons, and member of the French delegation to the International Penitentiary Congress of Rome in 1885; Dr. Engleman, professor of the University of Dorpat; Dr. Lammasch, professor of penal law in the University of Vienna, Austria; Emile Brusa, professor of penal law in the University of Turin; W. Spasowicz, doctor of laws and advocate, St. Petersburg.

2. In what manner can drunkenness be regarded in penal legislation, first, either as an offense in itself, or, second, as an incident added to the offense, neutralizing, extenuating, or aggravating the character of the crimes?

Reporters.—De Lilienthal, professor of criminal law in Zurich; the committee of the society against the abuse of alcoholic beverages, Baden; Dr. K. von Stoesser, president of the senate at Carlsruhe; Dr. Fischer, and Charles Baer, counselor of the court of appeals, Carlsruhe; E. Jacquin, counselor of state (France), director of criminal affairs and pardons, and delegate of the minister of justice to the congress in Rome; Tancred Canonico, senator of the Kingdom of Italy; De Rohland, professor of the university of Dorpat; Dr. L. Fuld, advocate of the court of Mayence; Dr. Isidore Baumgarten, deputy procurer royal at Buda-Pesth; Dr. Jules Fekete, judge of the royal tribunal at Aran yos Marat, Hungary; Private Counselor Heinze, professor at the University of Heidelberg.

3. Would it be practicable to establish the teaching of penitentiary science? And by what means can there be added to this the practical study of facts and questions of application without disturbing the operations of the service or prejudicing the character of the administration?

Reporters.—Dr. de Jagemann, ministerial counselor, Carlsruhe; Prof. Cæsar Lombroso, Henri Joly, Ivan Foinitsky, and I. Lacointa.

4. For what violations of criminal law, under what conditions, and to what extent would it be practicable to provide by legislation for, first, a system of admonitions or remonstrances addressed by the judge to the offender in the place of any punishment, or, second, the mode of suspension of a punishment, whether the penalty be a fine or imprisonment or any other that the judge might pronounce, but which he declares should not be applied to the guilty as long as he does not incur a new conviction?

Reporters.—Professor Wulfert, of Moscow; F. Dreyfus, advocate, former deputy and member of the French delegation to the congress of Rome; Dr. de Kirchenheim, professor at the University of Heidelberg; Henri Pessina, professor of penal law at the University of Naples and senator of the Kingdom; Raphael Garofalo, deputy procurer of the King, Naples; Dr. de Liszt, professor at the University of Marburg; Dr. Gustave Kautz, royal councilor and director of the Academy of Jurisprudence at Győr, Hungary; Wladimirow, professor at the University of Kharkow.

5. By what authority should the disposition of delinquent children be determined, and upon what particulars and after what principles should it be decided whether the offenses should entail, first, either a penal sentence and confinement in a prison so-called, or, second, commitment to a correctional establishment especially for vicious or incorrigible children, or, third, commitment to an educational institution designed for pupils placed under the guardianship of the State?

Ought the ages alone of the children to be considered in order to effect division and to determine the decision, and, if not, what conditions should regulate the classification?

Reporters.—G. Correvon, president of the cantonal tribunal, Lausanne; Dr. Henri Harburger, professor at the University of Munich; C. D. Randall, former State senator, and resident member of the board of control and secretary and treasurer of the state public school for dependent children, Coldwater, Mich.; Pedro Armengol y Cornet, delegate of the province of Barcelona; Antoine Marro, doctor of medicine.

6. What means can be adopted to reach effectively the habitual receivers of stolen goods?

Reporters.—Francisco Lastres, advocate, professor of law and deputy in the Span-

ish Parliament; Alfred Hill, justice of the peace at Birmingham, England; Dr. Georges Kleinfeller, professor at the University of Munich.

7. How can the pernicious influence of parents or guardians be averted from their children or wards after their conditional liberation and, in general, after the expiration of their sentence until their majority?

Reporter.—Alex de Moldenhauer, vice president of the court of Warsaw.

8. In accordance with what principles should the limits of the jurisdiction of the courts be made concerning the power to discipline for misdemeanors at common law committed by prisoners during their confinement? What misdemeanors of this kind should be judged by the courts, and which should be punished by way of discipline?

Reporters.—Professor Poustorossleff, of Moscow; Eugene Borel, doctor of laws and advocate; Danevsky, professor at the University of Kharkow; Schelkovnikoff, of Russia.

SECTION II.—*Prison discipline.*

1. Is the system of labor in prisons for the state to be preferred to the contract system?

Reporters.—Illing, private counselor to the minister of the interior at Berlin; Chicherio, director of the penitentiary of Lugano, Switzerland; Eckert, private counselor and director of the penitentiary of Fribourg, in Brisgau; L. Herbette, counselor of state, director of the administration of prisons, and chief of the French delegation to the Congress of Rome; Mucke, professor of statistics at the University of Dorpat; Tauffer, director of the central penitentiary of Bosnia and Herzegovina, at Zenica; Francois de Renzis, deputy of the Italian Parliament; Béla Atzél, director of the prisons at Nagy Enyed, Hungary; Maurice Föth, Hungary.

2. To what extent is prison labor detrimental to free labor?

How can prison labor be organized to avoid, as much as possible, competition with free labor?

(These two questions are continued from the last congress.)

Reporters.—Illing, superior private counselor, Berlin; Chicherio, director of the penitentiary of Lugano; Eckert, private counselor; L. Herbette, counselor of state and director of the administration of prisons of France; Tscatcheff, advocate, St. Petersburg; Henri Ferri, professor of penal law at the University of Sienne and deputy of Parliament; Schimanovsky, vice president of the society of jurisprudence of Odessa.

3. What privileges can be extended to prisoners in the interest of good prison discipline? Especially, to what extent is it safe to permit them to dispose of their earnings?

Reporters.—V. Hurbin, director of the penitentiary of Lenzburg, and president of the Swiss Society of Prisons; Sichart, director of the royal penitentiary of Ludwigsburg; Béla Atzél, director of the prisons at Nagy Enyed, Hungary.

4. Not including colonial transportation, what would be the best system of punishment by imprisonment, either for life or for a long time; say for exceeding 5 years, or, according to some legislation, exceeding 10 years?

What can be the nature, organization, and administration of prisons where prisoners of each of these classes are placed?

Reporters.—Pierre Nocito, professor of criminal law at the University of Rome, and deputy of Parliament; Dr. Victor Leitmaier, attorney-general at Graz.

5. According to what principles and by what methods can be secured most advantageously the recruitment of prison officers, directors, inspectors, stewards, etc.?

Reporters.—Gustave Garrison, doctor of laws, former chief of the cabinet of the president of the council of ministers, member of the French delegation to the congress of Rome, secretary of the committee on conditional liberation, and of the minister of the interior; Napoleon Vazio, counselor and former director-general of prisons; Louis Laszkovzky, director of the house of correction at Kalozsvar, Hungary.

6. Can we admit that a certain class of criminals or delinquents should be con-

sidered as incorrigible, and, if so, what means should be employed to protect society against this class of convicts?

Reporters.—Dr. E. Brusa, professor of law in the University of Turin; Wahovitch, advocate at Odessa; Sichart, director of the royal prison at Ludwigsburg; Z. R. Brockway, director of the reformatory at Elmira, N. Y., and former superintendent of the Detroit, Mich., house of correction; Foinitsky, professor at the University of St. Petersburg; Jules Pauer, director of the intermediate prison at Kis-Karta, Hungary.

7. In what respect should the treatment to which the prisoner is subjected before conviction compare with that after sentence?

Reporters.—Stevens, director of the prison at Saint-Gilles, Brussels; Pedro Armengol y. Cornet, of Barcelona; Aristide Armengol-Silorata, inspector of prisons for the minister of the interior; Baron G. de Marschall, of Mannheim.

8. If means of existence can be procured for prisoners at the expiration of their sentence, it is important to establish in the prison a great diversity of labor, so that each one may be taught the work he is most adapted to. But should this be done, the prisons to some extent might become industrial establishments of a special kind, and in consequence entail incumbrance and burdensome expenses. Besides, one can readily suppose that in this diversity of labor, by its nature too easy and simple, there might be hindrance to the success of repression. Nevertheless, without limiting the kinds of labor, should there not be furnished to each prisoner work to which he is adapted?

Reporter.—M. Illing, superior private counselor, Berlin.

9. In dividing the time of an imprisonment into certain periods or classes would it be best to treat the convicts with more or less severity in accordance with the degrees of the periods or classes they are in? If in the affirmative, the regimen in the first class should be applied with severity, and then evidently the cellular system should be adopted. But to what kind of labor should preference be given?

Besides, to revert to this arrangement of periods or classes, should the time be reduced briefly where the duration of the imprisonment has already been somewhat diminished?

(This question was proposed by the Government of Japan.)

10. If for the purpose of occupying uncultivated land or for colonization a prison should be established on such lands, should there be adopted a prison régime especially different from prisons in general, treating the prisoners with less severity? If this was done would it be deemed practicable, recognizing that the prisoners sent there are those sentenced to a long term, to have them undergo a prison régime of special order and to treat them severely during a given time in the prisons of the interior before their definite transportation to the prison in question?

(Question proposed by the Government of Japan.)

11. Is the compilation of international penitentiary statistics useful? Is it practicable? If yes, what should be the limit? After what system should it be done?

Reporters.—M. Beltrani-Scalia, director-general of the prisons of Italy; Dr. W. Starke, superior private counselor, Berlin; Yvernes, chief of division, with the minister of justice, Paris; F. J. Monat, M. D., former director of the prisons of Bengal and member of the Royal Statistical Society, London.

SECTION III.—*Preventive measures.*

1. Might not patronage or prisoners' aid societies be established between one country and another and made profitable by an exchange of experiences, and by following up discharged convicts until their return home to an honest life of labor, irrespective of the nationality of the prisoner, as well as to facilitate the return of any to their own country, and to inform their friends at home concerning them? In what manner could these relations between institutions and societies of patronage of different countries be established to produce the best results?

Reporters.—Fuchs, president of the central committee of the societies of patronage of the Grand Duchy of Baden at Carlsruhe; Riggenbach, chaplain of the penitentiary of Bâle.

2. Is there not a unity of interests and questions between prison officers charged with the management of prisons and their dependencies? And is not an exchange of information, a harmony of views, and a general concord of action, necessary between them?

How can this exchange of information, this harmony of views and this general concord of action be established without prejudice to independence, to good order, and to the efficiency of the public service?

Reporters.—Hardouin, honorary counselor of the court of appeals of Douai, and member of the French delegation to the Congress of Rome; W. M. F. Round, secretary of the Prison Association of New York.

3. Does the system of placing children in families present advantages to assure the education, employment, and the future welfare of those children who are placed for various reasons under the guardianship of the state?

To what extent and in what manner could there be substituted for this system for dependent children the placing of them in an establishment collectively, or by combining the two systems?

Reporters.—Dr. H. Harburger, professor of the University of Munich. Doukhowskoy, professor of Moscow. Fuchs, counselor at Carlsruhe. Felix Voisin, former prefect of police, former deputy, counselor, and member of the French delegation to the Congress of Rome. Dr. L. Fuld, advocate at the court of Mayence. Emmanuel-Paul Gacil, director of the house of correction at Aszód, Hungary.

4. To fully accomplish their mission, should not prisoners' aid societies interest themselves concerning the needs of the families of prisoners undergoing sentence, either to insure the maintenance of family affections or to assist the families themselves and to protect them from the consequences incident to the imprisonment of one of their members?

How can such assistance be rendered to the family without injury to the feelings, making it profitable by securing the reformation of the prisoner and his return to labor and an honest life?

Reporters.—Pastor Kraus, chaplain of the cellular prison of Fribourg; Felix Voisin; Joseph Veratti, medical director of the prisons of Bologne; Louis Laszkóvzky, director of the house of correction at Kalozvar, Hungary.

5. How can societies of patronage or prisoners' aid societies harmonize their services with those of the police and in the interests of public safety to save the liberated prisoner from relapse to crime, and society itself from new trouble and injury resulting from his acts, without directing attention to him and making him restless and disturbed in his free life?

Examine specially this question which is important to prisoners in the state of conditional liberation and held dependent on authority until the time of their definite discharge; estimating seriously the necessities of public safety and the precautions to be observed with regard to the liberated prisoner.

Reporters.—Pastor Rimensberger, president of the Cantonal Society of Patronage at Sitterdorf, Thurgovinia; Felix Voisin; Joseph Barini, chief of section to the minister of the interior; Pastor Bauer, chaplain of the prison of Fribourg.

6. By what means and in what manner can the public at large be enlightened, most correctly and effectively, on the true nature and importance, even in its relation to the public itself, of penal and prison questions, reforms and progress, studied or pursued, upon their value for the security of society and the protection of private interests, the reformation of the guilty and the general protection from social evil?

Reporters.—Pedro Armengal Y. Cornet at Barcelona. Clement Lévi, publicist.

There are other reporters whose names appeared from time to time as the pamphlet bulletins of the commission were issued. The reports already published would make

a large volume. The programme is one of the best, and the character of the reporters in each country was such as to insure most able and valuable discussions of the several important questions submitted.

COPY OF SPECIAL LETTER OF INVITATION.

COMMISSION OF ORGANIZATION OF THE
FOURTH INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS,
St. Petersburg, February 1 (13), 1890.

Mr. ——— ———:

HONORED SIR: In accordance with the unanimous wish expressed by the International Prison Congress of Rome, the Fourth Congress will be held in St. Petersburg the middle of June of this year.

The commission of organization, in concert with the International Prison Commission, is actively occupied in preparatory work. A programme of questions for discussion has been adopted and a number of eminent men have consented to charge themselves with the duties of reporter. All the addresses sent have been printed already, or are on their way to be, and will constitute a rich literature which will serve as the basis for discussion. An international penitentiary exposition will be opened simultaneously with the congress and will demonstrate in three respective divisions the results obtained in the different countries by the industrial régime of cellular prisons, prisons in common, as well as by the reformatory education of young delinquents and vicious and abandoned children. Besides this, there is projected a series of conferences held by eminent savants. These are intended to enlighten the general public upon the present condition of the principal penological and prison problems.

But in order that the efforts made shall assure the success of the Fourth International Prison Congress in serious and practical results, we need the assistance and presence in the congress of those who, like yourself, have become unquestioned authority in the domain of penal and reformatory science and in that of the prevention of crime. The commission of organization, in its own name and that of the commission of the International Prison Congress, takes the liberty, respectfully, to address to you a cordial and pressing invitation to honor the Congress of St. Petersburg with your presence and to take part in the discussions called out by the questions of the programme.

The coming reunion of the International Prison Congress will also furnish to all those who labor in the same domain an occasion to renew or to create personal relations and to prepare the ground which will some day serve to secure the unity of ideas in penal and reformatory science. A reduction of 50 per cent. on the railroads of Russia has been obtained by the committee of organization, and facilities of the same kind have been accorded by some of the other railroads of Europe.

In sending you herewith the programme of the questions for discussion and a notice of the favors secured from the railroad authorities of Europe, we request you to honor us with a reply, that we may know whether we should send you a ticket of admission to the congress.

In the hope that you will accede to our wishes and will accept our invitation, we pray you to accept, most honored sir, the assurance of our most distinguished consideration.

GALKINE-WRASKOY,
The President.

FOURTH INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS OF ST. PETERSBURG, 1890.

NOTICE.

Upon the accommodations granted by the railroad authorities to the members of the congress and for the transportation of objects for the International Prison Commission. Responses received up to February 1 (13), 1890.

Belgium.—The members of the congress will receive on the railroads of the state, on the whole line to the frontier, as well as on shorter routes, a reduction of 50 per cent. on the usual cost of tickets. This reduction is granted for express or ordinary trains. The objects intended for the exposition will be transported on the railroads of the state, according to the special rate conditions No. 10, to wit: The objects should be directed to the president of the commission of organization; on return they should be accompanied with a special booking office ticket, having the stamp of the exposition. To obtain the benefit of free transportation the sending and returning should be by the same route.

Denmark.—A reduction of 50 per cent. on the railroad rates will be granted for both the members of the congress and for the transportation of objects for the exposition.

Italy.—The same railroad accommodations will be extended as in exceptional cases.

Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony.—No special privilege will be allowed to the members of the congress; but those who go to the congress in groups of not less than 30 can have the privilege extended to travelers in general—a rebate in the rates of 50 per cent. As to objects sent to the exposition, their return will be gratuitous on the condition that the exhibitors prove by the shipping bill in going and by the certificate of the director of the exhibition that the objects were exhibited at St. Petersburg without having been sold; and further, that the return be made within four weeks after the close of the exposition and by the same route the goods were sent.

Portugal.—A reduction of 50 per cent. for both members of the congress and for objects sent to the exposition will be accorded by the railroads.

Sweden and Norway.—The same facilities will be granted by the railroads of the United Kingdom. In Norway they are limited to the following lines: Christiania to Charlottenburg, Christiania to Frederickshald, Christiania to Storlier, and vice versa. To enjoy these facilities in Norway a card of indentification will be taken from the chief of the bureau of prison affairs, of the minister of justice, and of the police of Christiania.

A LETTER FROM THE CHIEF OF THE PRISON ADMINISTRATION OF RUSSIA.

COMMISSION OF ORGANIZATION OF THE
FOURTH INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS,
St. Petersburg, February 17 (*March* 1), 1890.

HONORED SIR: I have had the pleasure of receiving your kind letter of the 8th of February and I pray you to accept my thanks. It is with great interest that I await the appearance of your work on the international prison congresses and the prison system of my country. To complete the materials you possess, permit me to present you a copy of the report on the work of the general administration of the prisons of Russia during the decennial period from 1879 to 1889. The French translation of this work is not completed and I can only send you the Russian version, but I hope that you will find some one who can make at least some extracts for you.

Permit me also to send you the inclosed letter of invitation to our congress.

In the hope of having the honor of seeing you in St. Petersburg, please accept the assurance of my high consideration.

GALKINE-WRASKOY.

MR. C. D. RANDALL.

PRINCE ALEXANDRE PETROVITCH D'OLDENBURG,
HONORARY PRESIDENT OF THE CONGRESS.

MEETING OF THE CONGRESS IN ST. PETERSBURG.

PRELIMINARY.

The Fourth International Prison Congress was held in St. Petersburg in June, 1890. The attendance at the congresses of London, Stockholm, and Rome had proved the extended interest that penology aroused in our times among specialists and statesmen. It was believed that this interest had increased with each congress on the part of the governments and the public, so that the attendance at St. Petersburg would be greater than at the others. Those who were acquainted with the character of the congresses knew well that the body was not composed of simple theorists, sentimental, and animated by a false philanthropy. They knew the members to be practical men, who were living constantly face to face with the dreary facts of pauperism and crime with which they had so much to do, and were engaged in the protection of society against those dangerous forces. They knew these men were seeking the best means of preventing crime, not only by the reformation of prisoners but by the protection and good education of abandoned, dependent, or ill-treated children, and by improved legislation to aid in securing the ends sought.

The public sentiment so favorable towards the congress has not only retained in the work the governments which have heretofore adhered to the International Prison Congress organization, but has influenced other governments to come into the association. The United States has been represented in each congress, but it has not joined the organization and consequently has not paid any of the expenses of the congresses of Rome and St. Petersburg as other nations have. This would have required a special appropriation, and no effort appears to have been made in that direction. The interest in the congress of St. Petersburg was shown by the large number of representatives from the various countries who came as official delegates of their governments and from societies, associations, and other bodies interested in social science, together with others from learned bodies, universities, etc.

Again, the numerous reports or documents containing extended information concerning correctional and charitable institutions, furnished in pamphlet form for distribution from so many countries, were another evidence of the attention the subject everywhere attracted.

Nor should the permanent exposition of prison construction and prison labor be forgotten. It was worthy of great attention and study by all, and will be described briefly in this report. In view of these facts, and that important and interesting questions had been submitted for the consideration of the assembly, it was expected that the debates would open under most favorable auspices, and that the Fourth International Prison Congress in St. Petersburg would mark an important step in the advance of prison reform.

From the time of entering Russia, until the return, during all the sessions and the excursions, the attention, assistance and courtesies of the commission of organization and of the Imperial Government were everywhere present to make the sojourn of the members in Rūssia interesting and agreeable. This was first noticed at the border, the emperor having issued an order that the luggage of the members was not to be examined by the custom-house officers. Every facility was afforded members for visiting penal, reformatory, and other public institutions and interesting places. All through the stay in Russia the cordial friendship of the Russians, personal and official, was everywhere present by many courtesies and material aid to add to the interest and pleasure of all, and to further the work of the congress. Under these favorable auspices the congress convened. The preparations of the international prison commissioners had been ample and all arrangements made by them were admirably executed. It is no disparagement to other able workers to say that the general secretary of the commission, M. Guillaume, of Berne, Switzerland, who was also the general secretary of the congress, should be especially credited for his invaluable labors in the organization of the congress, and in its operations generally. Recognizing this the emperor has presented him with a very interesting and valuable testimonial.

At the head of the commission of organization was Galkine-Wraskoy, the chief of the Russian prison administration. The arrangements made by this commission were everything that could be desired, and its distinguished chief was everywhere present, attentive and cordial to all, and by his fine executive abilities forwarded the labors of the congress. All the commission had promised was more than fulfilled. Under all these favorable circumstances there was every reason why the sessions of the congress should be interesting and valuable.

REGULATIONS FOR THE FOURTH INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS.

ARTICLE 1. The congress will open June 15, 1890.

ART. 2. Only the following will be admitted to take part in the work of the congress.

(*a*) Official delegates sent by governments.

(*b*) High officials in prison administration.

(*c*) Professors of criminal law in the universities.

(*d*) Delegates from prison societies.

(*e*) Persons invited by the commission; notably those who are known by their works on penitentiary science, officers of prisons and reform schools, and presidents of patronage societies, etc.

ART. 3. No one will be admitted to the sessions of the general assembly unless he presents a card at the entrance.

ART. 4. A provisional bureau is formed from the members of the international commission. The members of this commission meet at a place fixed 4 days before the opening of the congress.

ART. 5. The assembly in its first reunion will verify the authority of the members, will name definitely its bureau, and arrange the order of business. The members

who are admitted will receive a personal card on payment of 5 rubles as an entrance subscription.

ART. 6. The members will separate for preparatory work into three sections, respectively charged with provisionally finding and submitting to the general assembly the solution of the questions of the programme.

ART. 7. Division into sections.

First section—Penal legislation.

Second section—Penitentiary institutions.

Third section—Preventive institutions.

ART. 8. Each member may designate the section to which he desires to belong. At the same time each member may take part in the work of any of the sections.

ART. 9. Each section names its officers and selects one or several reporters charged with presenting their written reports to the sessions of the general assembly.

ART. 10. All reports, documents, notes, and propositions relating to the work of the congress are distributed to the sections to which they belong.

ART. 11. The sections meet daily at 9 a. m. precisely, in the places assigned.

ART. 12. The general assembly meets daily at 2 p. m. in the hall of its sessions, unless otherwise notified by the president.

ART. 13. The members will sign each day the presence list at the entrance of the section.

ART. 14. The president has charge of the sessions and the direction of the debates. He prescribes the order of the day and supervises the officers.

ART. 15. The general assembly votes after discussion upon the conclusions submitted by the reporters. Every proposal to amend the conclusions should be drawn, written, and signed by its author, supported by 5 members, at least, in the bureau which submits it to the assembly.

ART. 16. Unless otherwise decided by the assembly, the vote will be taken *viva voce*.

ART. 17. The votes are received by countries and classes in alphabetical order.

ART. 18. No one is permitted to vote except official delegates and members invited by the international commission, whose authority has been submitted to the formality required by Art. 5 of the regulations.

ART. 19. The secretaries, either of the general assembly or of the sections, will record the proceedings, which will contain the order of the day, the subject discussed, and the results of the vote.

ART. 20. No proposition not in the programme, nor the reading of any paper or memoir, can be had without the consent of the division.

ART. 21. The order of the day or the previous question can always be demanded.

ART. 22. No address shall occupy over 15 minutes. This rule is not applicable to the reporters.

ART. 23. Though the French language is preferred for the discussions, yet the members may speak in other languages, in which case their words will be at the time translated by one of the secretaries.

ART. 24. At the opening of each session one of the secretaries will announce the publications, memoirs, papers, and other works presented to the congress relative to the questions treated. These documents can be, according to a decision of the commission, reproduced either in full or by analysis or extract, according to the case, in the proceedings of the congress.

ART. 25. To secure correctness and a prompt publication of the proceedings, the speakers are requested to send to the commission, with as little delay as possible, the substance of their discourses, or at least notes of the discussion, to aid those preparing the material for publication. The proceedings will be published in the French language.

THE PROGRAMME.

Friday, June 13.—Reunion of the members of the International Prison Commission and other official delegates at the city hall for the address of welcome by the mayor of St. Petersburg. Report of his excellency Galkine-Wraskoy upon the labors of the commission since the session at Geneva in September, 1889, and discussion of the objects and the order of the day.

At 8 o'clock in the evening social reunion of the members of the congress in the parlors of the first floor of the Hotel d'Europe, entrance on Michael street. These rooms, set apart for the use of the commission, will be open every day, and will serve as a rendezvous for the members. It is there they will find copies of the reports presented upon the questions of the programme.

This place will be open every evening after 8 o'clock for social reunions, when members can see each other and become better acquainted.

Saturday, June 14.—At 11 o'clock precisely, presentation of official delegates to his highness Prince d'Oldenburg, the honorary president of the congress. Visit to his excellency Mr. Dournovo, minister of the interior, and to his excellency Mr. de Giers, minister of foreign affairs. From 2 to 6 o'clock will be devoted to visiting different prisons of the capital; the Correctional prison (Litovsky Zamok); the new cellular prison (Viborg); the prison for young convicts (Arsenal street); the prison for prevention (Schpalernaïa); and the municipal prison (Cosaque). At 8 p. m., social meeting at the place named.

Sunday, June 15.—At 1 p. m., in the grand hall of the assembly of the nobility, solemn opening of the congress. [The official delegates are requested to enter by stairway No. 5, and to take places reserved. All other members should enter by the principal stairway, No. 4. They are requested not to leave the hall before the conclusion of the ceremonies.] On this day the exposition will not be opened before 3 o'clock. [Notice: Dress for the ceremony, black coat, white cravat, and decorations.] The members are requested to be present at the hour indicated. Discourse by the honorary president. The opening of the exposition.

At 9 p. m., in the grand hall of the nobility, public conference on John Howard, given by Mr. Spasowitch, advocate and former professor of law. [Dress: black coat and white cravat.] At the close of the conference the members of the congress are invited by Mr. Likhatchew, mayor of St. Petersburg, to a soirée in the city hall.

Monday, June 16.—At 10 a. m. precisely, meeting of the members in their respective sections in the first floor of the Palace of the Nobility, to proceed to the nomination of officers and to fix the order of the day for the sessions. At 11 a. m., general assembly in the grand hall of the palace, to proceed to the election of the officers. At 2 p. m., commencement of the discussions on the order of the day. At 8 p. m., pub-

lic conference on prison reform, given by M. Tancred Canonico, senator of the Kingdom of Italy.

Tuesday, June 17.—At 9 a. m., second session of the sections; continuation of the order of the day. At 2 p. m., general assembly and reports on the work of the sections. At 8 p. m., public conference on measures for the prevention of crime, given by Dr. Eugene de Jagemann, ministerial counselor of Carlsruhe.

Wednesday, June 18.—9 a. m., meeting of the three sections. Three p. m., meeting of the general assembly. Eight p. m., social meeting, usual place.

Thursday, June 19.—9 a. m., meeting of the sections. At 2 p. m., general session. At 8 p. m., social meeting.

Friday, June 20.—9 a. m., meeting of the sections. At 2 p. m., general assembly. At 8 p. m., social meeting.

Saturday, June 21.—9 a. m., public conference on prevention of crime, added to the program by C. D. Randall, official delegate from the United States of America. Session of the sections. At 2 p. m., general assembly. At 8 p. m., public conference, by Mr. Herbette, on the study of penitentiary questions.

Monday, June 23.—10 a. m., meet at the Palace of the Nobility for an excursion to the reformatory colony of St. Petersburg. Nine p. m., session of the International Prison Commission.

Tuesday, June 24.—General meeting and close of the congress, to be followed by excursions to Finland and Moscow.

This programme was, in the main, carried out. Instead of evening social meetings named, there were several evening banquets in honor of the congress, which will be briefly described in another place.

THE ASSISTANT REPORTERS.

The commission named the following members of the congress to act as assistant reporters. Their duty was to open the discussions by presenting an abstract of the views expressed in the various preparatory reports which had been presented and published by the commission, and in formulating a resolution which would form the basis of discussion and upon which the section would be asked to vote.

SECTION I.—*Legislative.*

First question, M. Spassovitch; second, M. Sliosberg; third, M. Milenko Wessnitch; fourth, M. Slautchevsky; fifth, Mr. Foynitsky; sixth, Mr. Golovine; seventh, Mr. Karnitski, and eighth, Mr. Tchéglovitow.

SECTION II.—*Penitentiary.*

First question, Mr. Prilejaew; second, Mr. Géorgievsky; third and fourth, Mr. Woulfert; fifth, Mr. Latischu; sixth, Mr. Spassowitch; seventh, Mr. Vérevkine, and eighth, ninth, and tenth, Mr. Foynitsky.

SECTION III.— *Preventive Institutions.*

First and second questions, Mr. Listchinsky; third, Mr. Karnitsky; fourth, Mr. Slosberg; fifth, Mr. Voisin; and sixth, Mr. Rasselli.

It was announced that any foreign members who desired to act in the place of any of the assistant reporters could so arrange it at the reunions at the Hotel d' Europe. It should be noted that the word reporter as relates to the congress is used in a different sense than is generally understood. The reporters in the preparatory works are those who write the answers by essays to the various questions on the programme, which are published by the commission before the congress, forming the basis of the discussions, and the duties of the assistant reporters are as above defined.

MEETING OF THE INTERNATIONAL PRISON COMMISSION.

The International Prison Commission held a meeting in the city hall at 2 o'clock in the afternoon of June the 14th, with delegates from Baden, Bavaria, Belgium, Denmark, Spain, France, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Norway, Russia, and Sweden, whose Governments had adopted the regulations.

The session was opened with an address by Mr. Likhatchew, a member of the imperial council and the mayor of St. Petersburg, who spoke as follows:

GENTLEMEN: In conformity to the unanimous decision of the preceding prison congress, held in Rome, and by the gracious invitation of His Majesty our august sovereign, the Fourth International Prison Congress has assembled in St. Petersburg.

I make it my first duty to express, in the name of the municipal council of the capital, my profound appreciation of the choice of the city of St. Petersburg as the place for the reunion of the Fourth International Prison Congress. The international congress is a tribute rendered to social progress. The object of these congresses is to disperse the imperfections and vices of our modern civilization by the light they unremittingly shed. They batter down the walls of ignorance, routine, fanaticism, and poverty, the scourges of humanity which engender crimes.

But in order that the labors of the congress should furnish the results we have a right to expect from principles so humane, so generous, and so just, which it elaborates, and that they may have a practical application, it is evident that there should be a permanent international commission to prepare and supervise the labors of the successive congresses. This task has been filled by the International Prison Commission of the fourth congress with great success. The numerous works touching the different questions which concern crime, and which have been presented to the fourth congress, prove this in a brilliant manner.

Permit me now to extend a most sincere welcome to all the learned gentlemen who have not been prevented by the difficulties and fatigues of a long journey from coming to take part in the labors of the fourth congress in St. Petersburg, and to extend the most sincere wishes of the people of St. Petersburg for the success of this great international work.

After this address, Mr. de Braunbehrens, deputy secretary of state to the minister of the interior of Prussia, spoke as follows:

GENTLEMEN: Permit me to thank sincerely the mayor for his cordial welcome to us all and for the noble thoughts he has expressed. We have, my colleagues and

myself, the most lively gratitude for all those who have engaged in the preparatory work of the congress. But our recognition is due first to the Imperial Government of Russia which extends this hospitality and to the delegates of that Government. I am certain that under the intelligent presidency of Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy your efforts will not lack success. For the success of his presidency, for my colleagues and myself, I extend my cordial and sincere wishes.

Following this, Mr. Wraskoy delivered this address:

GENTLEMEN AND DEAR COLLEAGUES: I do not know how to express the great pleasure I have in meeting you. With some of you our relations date from the congress of Stockholm, and with others from that of Rome. And if I have also pleasure in saluting in this assembly new members, the ties which unite us with them are not less strong, considering the interest we all have equally in the work we pursue and the end we seek. Gentlemen, I welcome you all.

Our honorable general secretary, who has for so many years devoted himself to the work of the congress with the zeal which distinguishes him, will render an account of the work of his bureau. But before I give him the floor I have the great satisfaction to communicate to you that two states, Belgium and Greece, have joined the International Prison Commission. May the other states, which are not yet represented here in our commission in a permanent manner, follow this good example and aid in consolidating and enlarging the activity of the commission.

Constantly in accord with the local commission we have endeavored to carry out strictly the programme which has been made for us, and it is for you, gentlemen, to decide whether our united efforts to assure the success of the present congress and that of the exposition have accorded with your desires.

I have some words to add relative to the exposition. The desire which has been expressed to witness especially the sections of work in common and work in the cells, as well as that which relates to correctional education, has been complied with. But besides these three sections the local commission believed it would gratify the general interest by reproducing through models and photographs the methods for transporting exiles, their dwellings, the different kinds of labor, without excepting that in the mines, desiring to present the fullest information possible relative to the prison in the island of Saghalien.

I again extend my welcome with wishes for the complete success of the congress, and request Dr. Guillaume, the secretary general, to present his report of the work of the commission.

The president invited the official delegates from Belgium and Greece to take seats with the commission. It was announced that the delegate from Spain, Mr. Don Juan de Dias de la Rada y Delgado, member of the supreme council of prisons and senator of the kingdom, had not arrived, and that he had asked to be excused for his absence.

Dr. Guillaume, the secretary general, then presented the report of the bureau of the International Prison Commission. This report showed that since the session in Geneva the activity of the bureau had been almost exclusively in the publication of the numerous preparatory works of the congress. He extended the thanks of the commission to all the reporters, and especially to the Society of Jurisprudence of St. Petersburg for its activity in the study of the questions submitted to the congress as well as for the distinguished manner in which these reporters had discharged their task by the able and valuable reports they had

submitted. The report also expressed high appreciation of the work of the commission of organization.

Mr. Pessina, senator of the Kingdom of Italy, presented a resolution to the effect that the Society of Jurisprudence of St. Petersburg be charged with naming a jury to examine the competitive works on the life and labors of John Howard, which was adopted. The number of the works to be submitted to the jury is fourteen.

Mr. Herbette, counselor of state, director of the prison administration of the French Republic, and chief of the French delegation, spoke as follows:

Mr. PRESIDENT and GENTLEMEN: I have been authorized by the International Prison Commission to thank the council of St. Petersburg, for the hospitable welcome it has given us in this great and admirable city.

We can not prevent adding to the warm thanks the mayor was pleased to express the respectful consideration we have for the Government of His Imperial Majesty, and our profound sympathy for the eminent gentlemen who have given us such a hearty welcome.

One of the members of this meeting has spontaneously interpreted our impressions. But in that which touches the heart, and in paying a debt of gratitude, no one can omit his part. It is honorable for each to do his duty as well as he can.

Permit us, then, to fulfill a duty which gives us so much pleasure. I desire no other proof of this pleasure than the eagerness to undertake so long a journey.

Having labored for nearly five years with Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, we have the right to congratulate ourselves, and to rejoice at the rare qualities with which he unites the most happy amiability to the highest intelligence. He has known how to render this important prison work agreeable and entertaining.

In making this eulogy, which the president can not refute, since he has completed his discourse, we do not separate our attachment for him from that which is due to the noble country of which he is a delegate. Our countrymen rejoice to visit this immense Empire which carries civilization to most distant countries. We can, gentlemen, truthfully speak for you in expressing, in as discreet a manner as may be, our homage, and most respectful wish for those who have been so willing to encourage, with their powerful patronage, a labor of useful studies and of moral progress, and who have so willingly organized a congress and an exposition of which we already predict the brilliant success.

At the end of this address, at 3 o'clock, the session was closed.

RECEPTION BY PRINCE AND PRINCESS D'OLDENBURG AND THE MINISTER OF THE INTERIOR.

On Saturday, June 14, at 11 o'clock a. m., the official delegates had the honor to be presented to his highness Prince Alexander Petrovitch d'Oldenburg, the honorary president of the congress, and to his wife, her highness Princess Eugénie Maximilanovna. His excellency Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, president of the committee of organization, accompanied the members and made the presentation, which took place in the palace of the prince and princess. The members were received in a most affable manner. At the close of the audience the members left their cards for his excellency Mr. de Giers, minister of foreign affairs, who was then absent from St. Petersburg, on his estates in Finland.

The members then waited on his excellency Mr. Dournova, minister of the interior, who received them and spoke as follows:

GENTLEMEN: His Majesty, my Sovereign, having graciously offered his capital as the place for the reunion of the International Prison Congress, of which you have the honor to be representatives, we may rightly consider this hospitality as an evidence of his sympathy for the humane and Christian purposes of your noble work. This evidence, gentlemen, is all the more valuable as it is an expression of the sympathies of the hundred millions of Russian people. One of the great pioneers in the work you represent, the immortal Howard, found in Russia a century ago that respect and sympathy for his labors, in all classes of society, which seemed to give him encouragement.

And these, gentlemen, are not idle words, for if any of you have had the leisure to study closely the character of Russia in the details of its life and history, you will find that the dominant traits of its Christian philanthropy consist in aiding the prisoner, who for centuries has been specially termed the "unfortunate;" and wherever this unfortunate may be found within the great limit of Russia, there is no hand that would not aid him, nor any heart that would refuse him its pity.

I speak thus, gentlemen, for I am convinced that you, without doubt, agree with me that a task such as yours is infinitely more agreeable and easy to fill when it can be accomplished in the midst of the sympathies which come from all classes and from all hearts, and which surround and encourage you.

This encouragement is not the only thing. You find yourselves, gentlemen, in the capital of a great nation whose history of a thousand years represents the alliance and the integrity of two great principles, or, to speak more definitely, of two distinct religions, whose equilibrium has always been maintained by the tact and moral spirit of the nation.

Indebted for its national and political development to the genius of its church and to the organic force of its historic traditions, Russia preserves them with a sacred respect—sacred, immutable, and independent.

But, being the youngest of the nations in the age of European civilization, Russia is faithful to her duty to improve herself in the school of this civilization in all that the sciences and arts produce that is great and useful, wherever human thought devotes itself to the service of assisting the needy and alleviating suffering. The purpose of your present reunion is to discover these needs and to alleviate these ills. To retain for imprisonment the severity of its penal character, to allay and diminish as much as possible its hurtful effects, to increase and strengthen its reformatory and regenerating influence—such are the ends of your work, in which we join you with the respect due to your ideas, to your labors, and to your experience. Permit me, gentlemen, influenced by these ideas and sentiments, to welcome you and to assure you of our most sincere sympathies and to extend our best wishes for the success of the noble work you have undertaken.

It is useless to add, gentlemen, that in me personally and in all those under my direction you will find a readiness to aid you and to be useful to you in the accomplishment of your labors.

Certain passages of this discourse, and especially the conclusion, were received with great applause.

LIBRARY

OPENING OF THE FOURTH INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS.

The solemn opening of the congress was held at 1 o'clock in the afternoon, Sunday, June 15, in the great hall of the assembly of the nobility. There was to be nothing in the exercises inappropriate to the Sabbath from the American standpoint, and yet the day would probably not have been selected in this country. The observance of that day on the European continent differs materially from what it is in America. On the continent it is more of a holiday than one of rest and worship. The difference in conditions and customs must account for the selection of that day for the opening of the congress. And yet, if there is one thing Europe especially needs, it is the quiet, rest, and recuperative force, as well as the worship, of the American Sabbath. The word *American* is used, for there is no Sabbath in the streets of England, where unlimited numbers of drinking places are open on Sunday, day and night, and are crowded with young and old, young women often being present. The home of the Sabbath is to-day more in America than anywhere the world over.

The great hall of the assembly of the nobility is on Michael street, which is parallel to the Nevsky Prospect and a few rods from the Hotel d'Europe, which is on the street connecting the two first named. The exterior of the building is massive, large, plain, and imposing. The interior is of ample proportions, having, besides the main hall for the general meetings, other large rooms for the use of the sections. The main hall is at least 75 feet wide by about 100 feet long. About 15 feet wide around the entire hall is a platform or floor about 3 feet higher than that of the main audience room in the center. This widens to about 25 feet at the back forming the great stage or platform for the president, secretaries, etc. Around the hall and next to the audience floor, except on the platform end, are great pillars reaching to the high ceiling. Entering the hall, on the right in the center of the side elevation and between the massive pillars will be seen the imperial tribune for occupation by members of the royal family, where frequently the Prince and Princess d'Oldenburg were seen as attentive listeners, and accompanied by others of like rank. This tribune is about 25 feet long, covered by a canopy of red material and surmounted by a gilt crown. Facing this, on the other side, is a large bronze statue of Empress Catherine II, in sitting posture.

The principal entrance of the edifice was decorated with elegant simplicity, having in large plain letters an inscription in French "Fourth International Prison Congress." The hall itself had a most interesting and imposing aspect. Its grand architectural character required only sober decoration. All that was done was proof of most elegant taste, and was in entire harmony with the serious character of the reunion. Upon the great stage or platform in the rear were disposed masses of verdure, plants, and flowers, surrounding an exact reproduc-

ALEXANDER III,
EMPEROR OF RUSSIA.

tion of the monument raised at Cherson to the memory of the great philanthropist, John Howard. At the front of the platform were the tables and seats for the president in the center and the secretaries on the right and left. On two sides of the platform, seats were reserved for official delegates, who, however, generally occupied seats with the other members on the main audience floor.

In the middle of the hall were the seats for the members; on the elevated sides of the hall between the great pillars were handsome decorations of plants and flowers, and especially grouped around the statue of Empress Catherine II and the imperial tribune. Everything had been done to make the great assembly room attractive and convenient for the congress. At the time designated everything was complete for the great opening; the members were present, and among them many ladies. The meeting also attracted some of the most conspicuous persons of the empire. Among them were Mr. Dournovo, minister of the interior; Mr. Manasséine, minister of justice; Mr. Ostrovsky, minister of domains; Mr. Hubbenet, minister of ways of communication; Mr. Tchikatchew, minister of the marine; Count Delianow, minister of public instruction; Mr. Vyschnegradsky, minister of finance; Mr. Pobédonostsew, attorney-general of the holy synod; Mr. Vlangaly, assistant minister of foreign affairs, and Mr. Polovtsow, secretary of the empire. There were also present members of the council of the empire, senators, generals, foreign ambassadors, and other chiefs of missions, to assist in the reunion.

At 1:45 o'clock there were seated in the imperial tribune the following:

Their Majesties the Emperor and Empress of Russia and the Queen of Greece; his imperial highness, the hereditary Grand Duke; their highnesses, the Grand Duke Georges Alexandrovitch, the Grand Duke Alexis Alexandrovitch, the Grand Duke Vladimir, the Grand Duke Serge Alexandrovitch, the Grand Duchess Elizabeth Feodorovna, the Grand Duke Paul Alexandrovitch, the Grand Duke Michel Nicolaïévitch, the Grand Duchess Olga Fédorovna, the Grand Duke Constantine Constantinovitch, the Grand Duchess Elizabeth Mavrikievna, the Grand Duke Georges Mikaïlovitch, the Grand Duke Alexander Mikaïlovitch, the Grand Duke Serge Mikhaïlovitch, the Grand Duchess Catharine Mikhaïlovna, the Princes Nicholas and Georges Maximilianovitch Romanovsky, the Dukes of Leuchtemberg, Princess Eugenie Maximilianovna d' Oldenburg, Princess Helèna de Mecklenburg—Strelitz, Princes Georges and Michael de Mecklenburg—Strelitz, Prince Pierre d' Oldenburg. Their Majesties and their Highnesses were accompanied by a brilliant suite. The titles are here given quite fully as a matter of interest to American readers.

At the same time the following persons had taken their places on the great platform reserved for the bureau: His Highness Prince d'Oldenburg, the honorary president of the congress and of the commission of

organization; Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, president of the commission and of the congress, on the right of the prince, with Mr. Likhatchew, the mayor of the capital, on the left.

The following address was then delivered by the honorary president:

GENTLEMEN: One of the distinctive traits of our epoch is the international character which scientific studies in nearly all branches of human knowledge have received. This character is affirmed principally in the congress which brings together men of different countries, working in the same field of activity, allowing them to direct their common efforts to the same end and to verify theory by experience The services of such reunions are invaluable. Their high usefulness is equally manifested in the field of penitentiary science.

The Prison Congress of London may be cited in this respect as an important event. The interest it awakened about 20 years ago in these important questions has continually developed, and in most countries still increases. If we review the labors of the three international prison congresses, and the preparatory work of the present congress, we are rejoiced in demonstrating the progress realized and to know that the great task has not been undertaken in vain. The labors of these congresses have not only attracted the notice of statesmen, but also penologists and exact scientists. Undoubtedly all these united efforts will contribute to elucidate the most efficient means for securing the diminution of crime.

To attain this result, that is to prevent crime and to reduce the number of criminals, it is recognized by general assent that one of the most important things is to bring special attention to the condition of unfortunate children. As early as 1872, at the Congress of London, among the conclusions adopted was one demanding all possible solicitude for children morally and physically abandoned, as well as for those who are already vicious and criminal.

At the Congress of Stockholm, as well as that of Rome, this principle was again insisted on.

Desiring to respond to this appeal in favor of childhood, the commission of organization of the present congress has collected the greatest possible amount of practical information. The interest which is manifest at present in Russia on all these questions dates far back. John Howard, the great English philanthropist, the centenary of whose death we commemorate, had already found here a favorable land for his generous ideas. Emperor Alexander I was inspired by these views, and, with the assistance of another English philanthropist, Walter Venning, founded a society for the protection of prisons, to improve their condition and that of the prisoners. Emperor Nicholas, in his turn, interesting himself in the study of questions relative to prisons and the prevention of crime, sent official delegates to the reunions of Frankfort and Brussels, which preceded the Congress of London, although these reunions did not have a governmental character. Finally, under the reign of the Emperor Alexander II, Russia entered the way of systematic reform, and consequently of prison régime. In inviting this congress to meet in his capital, His Majesty the Emperor desired to show the interest that he took in the study of the questions of the programme which have been the subject of numerous and important preparatory works.

The discussions which these questions incite promise to be fruitful in judicious councils and practical information. And in expressing this hope, gentlemen, and in extending you welcome, I declare opened the fourth session of the International Prison Congress.

In response Mr. Herbette, chief of the French delegation and chief of the administration of the prisons of France, spoke as follows:

GENTLEMEN: In the name of my colleagues of the International Prison Commission I am authorized to reply to the words which receive so much strength from the high

position of the gentleman who pronounces them, from the presence of the Emperor who hears them, and from all the eminent persons who assist at this session.

Our first words should be to express our gratitude and it will only be with a word, assuredly not that subjects for reflection are wanting, but because there is so much to say if we abandon ourselves to sentiment. It would be indiscreet and inopportune, perhaps, to aim too high in this simple response. But it is admissible to draw some lessons from the spectacle before us for the good of humanity.

Imagine a hearer, not informed of the object of this reunion, arriving suddenly. Imagine him as seeing such an assembly, dreaming of the motives which would lead a sovereign to give some of his time, that is to say of his life, of a life so precious to so many million beings; as he counts the illustrations within these walls; as he asks himself what work is great enough to fix the attention and attract the solicitude of statesmen, executives, magistrates, jurists, and of savants in all branches of social science; as he calculates what pressing interests have led from distant countries so many persons whose work and duties require them at home, will he not be struck with this fact, that the work here is for the unfortunate; not for the unfortunate whom fatality alone has smitten and who remain worthy of esteem in the lowest misery, but for those who have merited their fall and who are frequently obstinate in not desiring to rise again?

This fact speaks loud enough to honor our epoch and to show how, notwithstanding so many dangers which always menace the moral as well as the material life, the cause of the right always finds again new forces and brings together from places however distant men of all nations and ranks. The devotion which we have for a mission imposed for the public good, this religion of duty by which each one judges himself required to do good to others, is the source of the purest joy, the greatest consolation in trials, and the greatest hope for the future.

That nothing relating to man should be despised, even by the best and most powerful; that power is only another reason for being good; that the most virtuous are those who best aid the unfortunate—are not these ideas enough to call together theorists and active, practical men, the most virtuous and charitable women, and people of all conditions and positions in society? As the attentions to be given to those who suffer from physical evil have always been presented as a duty of the fortunate of this world, and as the example of charity goes back to the limits of history, so it seems that a deep solicitude for the restraint of moral evil and for prevention should exist for those who are better for protection. But for the want of personal benevolence and responsibility for these evils, this epoch and society suffers for evils it can not resist. It is then the work of respectable people to undertake the task of the reformation of the guilty, who are not incurable and who do not wish to be. As long as life remains, no man should be surrendered to extreme despair.

Do not involuntary and accidental causes too often throw men into human depravity, when a wise and firm direction would have given them fair morality, utility, and happiness? Thus is justified the eagerness of all to interest themselves in the conditions of children, of young men, of young girls, that is to say, of all those who are exposed to fall without knowing the perils from which to guard themselves, and are without strength to resist.

Hence the importance of this present congress and the exposition to be opened for all questions and institutions which interest children tainted or menaced by moral evil.

On this occasion how can we fail to congratulate ourselves on the vast undertaking which devoted organizers of the exposition have so intelligently accomplished, presenting this collection of documents, of facts, and of ideas which take form in the exhibits for the benefit of visitors who may learn by object lessons?

Who can understand the devotion and activity, the researches, the combinations, the preparatory details and the long transportation necessary to an exposition of this kind? How can we fail to be struck by the taste, the art, even, and the charm that

such distinguished men have given to this grouping of the various objects, prepared and collected in all countries to form this spectacle and to impress the spectators deeply with the noble thoughts they inspire? Who would not appreciate all the co-laborers of this organization? and what satisfaction it must be for strangers, their guests, to assure them of the brilliant success they have so well attained.

The principal author of this work, whom we see here, finds himself condemned to undergo eulogies which his modesty would avert if we had consulted him in the advance. Our eminent and cherished president, Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, whose rare qualities are enhanced by his charming manners, has known too well how to make himself loved and appreciated by his colleagues for them to keep silent to-day. All that we can do to accede to his wishes is for us, his fellow-workers, to extend to him our cordial thanks, in the name of this general work so profitable to the various countries.

This solemnity shows better than long addresses can how distances lessen and are effaced, thanks to inventions and to modern ideas. So many men whose occupations do not seem to leave them free to make a short journey in their own country have found it very simple to come here, and are happy to be in this great and beautiful city of St. Petersburg, in the capital of this immense empire, where such an effort has been made for the progress of penal and penitentiary science.

After having expressed these congratulations and eulogies, which are in the thoughts of all, how can we be prevented from repeating to the honorary president of the congress, Prince d'Oldenburg, the expression of general gratitude? And how will her highness the Princess d'Oldenburg refuse to have her name associated with that gratitude as she associates herself in works of benevolence and protection tending to save all who are not irredeemably lost in the world of the unfortunate and guilty?

But whatever may be the reserve of my colleagues and myself, the sentiments of all can not be interpreted by a word in extending homage and profoundly respectful wishes for the family and person of him who would have the right to remain indifferent to evidences purely exterior, but who will not be indifferent, we hope, to the sincere gratitude which we all here have for His Majesty the Emperor of Russia.

This address closed the speaking of this session.

Their majesties and their highnesses then retired and the foreign official delegates, by invitation, arranged themselves near the imperial tribune, in ranks according to their respective countries. The Emperor and Empress having returned into the hall, the official delegates had the honor to be presented to them by Mr. Wraskoy and were received and conversed with very cordially. At the close of the presentation, their majesties and their highnesses went to the Michael Riding School building to inaugurate the International Penitentiary Exposition.

They were received there by Prince d'Oldenburg and Mr. Wraskoy, who accompanied them through the various sections. In the different sections, the official delegates of the respective countries explained to the Emperor and Empress the exhibits. On arriving at the Italian section, the Emperor was presented with the first volume of an album of prison architecture which was offered as a souvenir of this international reunion.

The visit and inauguration closed about 4 o'clock.

THE INTERNATIONAL PRISON EXPOSITION.

This great exposition, organized with so much labor and expense and so successfully accomplished, was a very attractive feature of the congress and was very frequently visited and inspected with great interest by the members. The location was less than half a mile from the Hall of the Nobility, and the exhibit was in the building known as the Michael Riding School. This structure has before been used for other expositions and is well adapted for such purposes. It is about 500 feet long and about 125 feet wide and probably 50 feet high in the center. It was held under the management of the president and honorary president of the congress, who were assisted by a commissary general, eight commissaries, a committee of twenty-seven members, and by twenty assistant members of the committee.

The exposition was divided into three sections, as follows:

1. International exposition of the products of the labor of prisoners under cellular régime.

2. International exposition of all objects serving in the management of correctional establishments for minors, as well as of all information relative to these establishments and specimens of the work done by minors.

3. International exposition of the products of the labor of prisoners in prisons where the convicts worked in common.

The purposes of the exposition being to furnish practical evidences, particularly of the interior organization of prisons and their economical service, each exhibit was presented as conspicuously as possible.

To accomplish this the building was divided as follows:

1. *Lengthwise.*—On both sides of the central passage were placed the exhibits belonging to prisons in common. The left passage separated the preceding group from that for correctional establishments for minors. The right passage separated the central group from that for cellular prisons.

2. *Diameter.*—Divided according to the names of the several states and the space in square metres occupied by each, as follows:

Baden, Bavaria, Hamburg, Prussia, Saxony, and Wurtemburg, together, 330 square metres floor space. England and the Argentine Republic, together, occupied only 10 square metres. Austria and Hungary 95, Belgium 192, Denmark 128, Spain and France 320, Italy 154, Greece, Japan, Portugal, Sweden, Norway, and Switzerland, 120; and Russia in its exhibit of provincial prisons and of those of Finland, transportation service, force labor at Nertchinsk, and the prisons of the island of Saghalien, occupied 2,066 square metres, making an exhibit larger than all the other countries combined, and attractive and interesting in all respects.

Each group of the Russian exhibit was subdivided into classes.

Group I was divided as follows: First, products of the labor of young prisoners. Second, objects relative to their mode of support.

Groups two and three were subdivided as follows: First, spinning. Second, rope-making. Third, straw articles and those from bark, strips, and roots of trees. Fourth, carpentry, turning, joinery, cooperage, house painting, coach-making, etc. Fifth, articles made by blacksmiths and locksmiths; articles of iron or silver, and agricultural machines and utensils. Sixth, bookbinding, including binding with boards. Seventh, clothing and shoemaking, clothing for prisoners, for guards, equipments, and hand work. Eighth, prison buildings. Ninth, outside work. Tenth, tanning. Eleventh, different objects and effects produced by prisoners not included in the other classes, and twelfth, articles and information relative to the support of prisoners.

All the interior fittings of the exposition were extensive, namely, the tables, the glass showcases, frames, platforms, etc., which were made by the prisoners in St. Petersburg. The unbleached cloth and most of the textures constituting the principal material for ornamentation were the work of convicts in the prisons of St. Petersburg.

To present the details of the exposition intelligently for each institution represented, there were furnished printed pamphlets describing the exhibit made by each, all of which formed an analytical catalogue of the exposition. These pamphlets are of various sizes, that of England having 7 pages and the Russian 202.

On entering this extensive exposition the visitor is agreeably impressed by its attractive appearance. Looking down the wide passage through the center, he sees, 500 feet away, the farther end occupied by a representation of mountain scenery, which forms the model of the mines of Agaltchi worked by prisoners condemned to forced labor. It is a prison of stone in the mining district of Nertchinsk, and represents the shafts following the veins of argentiferous lead, uniting in the gallery, to which different underground passages are conducted. The completed and unfinished shafts show the work as it progresses, in some places representing everything ready for the explosion by dynamite. The methods for conveying the metal along the shafts and the process for elevation to the surface are shown; also, the manner of raising or lowering the prisoners. The exterior is a very realistic reproduction of rough and rocky mountainous scenery.

Before him all over the great interior one sees the exhibits arranged in their several divisions, while the flags of all nations decorate the walls and the names of the several nations appear over their exhibits. The gloom of the subject does not pervade the room, for the articles exhibited and their surroundings would not suggest the prison walls, but rather the display of successful industries in a country where the arts are encouraged and perfected. In passing from section to section one would feel that he was in a first-class exposition of free labor. Whether the articles exhibited were harnesses for work-horses, car-

riages, heavy or light, agricultural implements or household utensils made in various countries or ornamental work in ivory, stone, or metal cut by delicate Italian hands, the work everywhere gave evidence of expert labor and artistic taste. Taken together, the exhibit was inviting and of absorbing interest. It would require volumes to describe the exposition in detail. The Russian exhibit alone had about 3,500 articles; Belgium had 1,140; Wurtemburg, 431, etc. Only a very brief sketch can be given of some prominent features.

It is known that great importance is attached to prison labor, as it is useful and reformatory for the prisoner and promotes economy. The products of prison labor furnish a revenue for the state and diminish public expenses. Hence it was useful to know how this labor has been organized in various countries and the results derived. Not only adult labor but that of minors has been utilized, by which children are reared with industrious habits, are taught trades, and assist in their own support and are self-supporting when they leave the institution. For example: The products in iron of the children in Belgium are shown, the results being remarkable. In France the young prisoners have acquired a wonderful skill in hand work. And child work in other countries can be also highly commended.

The exhibit of the German states was extensive. Prussia occupied the center of these states. The German products were quite varied, and among them were articles of furniture and upholstering and artificial flowers. In the Baden section there were some very fine articles of walnut furniture. In the Prussian exhibit there was an interesting model of the penitentiary of Gross-Strelitz and a model of a cell. Wurtemburg also had some fine articles.

The Austrian prisons were productive in the industrial arts. Carving in wood predominated. There was a remarkable panel with a head of the Virgin. There was also sacerdotal clothing made by the prisoners, uniforms for the troops as well as for the guards. The tapestries and designs representing work from the principal Austrian prisons were exhibited. Belgium occupied considerable space and had a large number of exhibits.

The prisons of that country are cellular and a model of the prison of Lousain was exhibited. It is one of the largest prisons in Europe and is arranged in the form of a star. The uniforms of the entire Belgium army are made in the prisons and samples were shown. There was a model in straw of the Eiffel tower.

In all, the educational correctional establishments of Belgium had 503 exhibits, the cellular prisons 488, and the prisons in common 149. Denmark exhibited specimens of clothing made by children in educational correctional institutions, together with many articles useful for the house. The prisons in common and the cellular prisons also had exhibits.

The French exhibition was especially unique. It was a remarkable

one on account of its great extent, wise selection of articles exhibited, and by its classification. The first striking feature was the historical study of the penalties from the time of the Hebrews to the present.

There was a series of photographs devoted to the subjects which were very interesting. There was a passage from the record of the Bastile relative to the prisoner with the iron mask; there were *lettres de cachet* which put Voltaire and Latude in that prison; the box which Latude sent to Madame de Pompadour and in which he was inclosed; an authentic pillory, and the fetters formerly used, at the side of those now in use. There were representations of the Bastile, Vincennes, the chateau of Clisson, and the Conciergerie; Loches and Fontevrault, the first cellular prisons; the model of a remarkable cell for a prisoner condemned to death; section of a cell for night isolation; interesting models from an agricultural colony, and others from a maritime colony for minors. There was also a fine exhibit of prison labor.

It is natural that the Italian section should find place for the fine arts, for music and for engraving. Tradesmen saw with much interest the model of the great agricultural penal colony of Tre Fontane in an ancient abbey of the Trappists, not far from Rome. In this exhibit there was also a collection of wines made by prisoners that merited special notice.

The display from Japan was interesting and well conducted. That country has given close attention to the study of prison questions. Among the most practical submitted to the congress were those from that Government.

In the great Russian exhibit, spinning and weaving were prominent, including work from different prisons and interesting specimens of cloth of excellent quality. In the cellular system in use in Russia, weaving is generally done by the prisoner with the loom in his cell. And it is often so with all kinds of prison labor there, from the simplest labor required of a short-time prisoner, like twisting hempen strings, to the carving in wood, cabinet making, weaving, etc. In this section were specimens of white silk made in the prisons of Taschent.

The prison known as the "Chateau of Lithuanie," in St. Petersburg, exhibited ropes, mats, and articles made from straw, machines, and useful agricultural tools. The correctional establishments of the capital occupied the first ranks in tinware, in carpentry, in cabinet work, and in turning. It was interesting to see in the Russian section, as well as in the exposition generally, the thoughtful care that has been given in the European prison administration to supply varied labor adapted to long and short terms, to both unskilled and skilled hands, and to all conditions mentally and physically, to insure as far as possible employment for all. The Russians have many industries with which the people are familiar, and which can be readily adapted to prison life. The climate there, as in other countries, plays its rôle in the selection of work, as well as the usual productions, trades, etc.

The feature of the Russian exhibit which attracted marked attention

was that section in which were shown the interior and exterior plans of some of the principal prisons of western Russia, including the great new cellular prison of Viborg, in the capital, the great prison on the island of Saghalien, and the models of large steamboats for the transportation of prisoners to remote parts of Siberia. The miniature copy of the Viborg prison was upon a platform about 3 feet high, and the buildings were but a few inches high and remarkably well made. Not only the exterior was shown of the whole prison, but the cell interior, the size of the rooms, the beds, the means of heating, lighting, ventilation, the appliances for labor, etc. This prison is for about 1,000 convicts, and is considered one of the most perfect, if not the best, in the opinion of some, that has ever yet been constructed in any country. All branches of service in this prison have been carried to the highest extent that European experience, study, and observation could take them. And this perfection has not been reached to make prison life desirable, but intelligently humane, to the end that the prisoner while in confinement should have pure air, light, labor, reformatory treatment, all reasonable assistance to aid—while he is undergoing due punishment—to restoration of manhood and self-support.

The sectional and other views of models of the great barges used on the Volga and on the other rivers of Siberia, for the transportation of prisoners, attracted much attention. These models were about 6 to 8 feet long and represented ships, steamers constructed in the most approved and artistic manner, as though for speed as well as for utility. The barges were represented by half the boat cut through the center lengthwise from the top to the bottom, showing the several decks with the cells for prisoners upon each side. The Government, in the construction of these steamers, has evidently labored to carry this service to the highest perfection possible. All sanitary needs have had careful attention as well as the security of the convicts under transportation. The steamer *Nijni-Novgorod*, exhibited there by model, is the one used to transport prisoners to the island of Saghalien.

There were also models of the station houses provided for exiles sent overland by wagons to Siberia. There was altogether quite a full exhibit of the various modes for transporting prisoners. There seemed to be no reserve on the part of the Government, so far as the exposition showed, in exhibiting the features of transportation.

It is certain that America could have made in this congress an exhibit that would have reflected great credit on the management of American prisons. There were frequent expressions of regret from Europeans that America had no exhibit, with the hope that we would have our prison system presented at the exposition of the congress to be held in Paris in 1895.

If any evidence were wanting to prove there had been progress in the administration of prisons, it was furnished by this great exposition. It showed that in all lands prison labor was utilized for the great bene-

fit of both the convicts and the state. It showed that no longer was there confinement in dungeons without proper air, without exercise, and without labor, which was formerly considered by the Government as the proper treatment. This exhibition was evidence that penology had reached nearer than ever the condition of one of the exact sciences.

Previous to 1886 the labor of convicts was not well organized in the prisons of Russia. In that year the council of the Empire perfected a plan which was approved by the Emperor. Previous to 1886 the labor of prisoners did not constitute an essential part of their punishment. Labor was only partially organized in a limited number of prisons, preference being given to work in cells. The province of Vistula was most noted for prison labor, but even there it could be only imperfectly organized, owing to the condition of the buildings and the congregate régime of the prisoners. New prisons, or the remodeling of the old, were needed before labor could be successfully carried on. By virtue of the regulations of 1886, the directors of the prisons were charged with the care of providing the prisoners with labor and with the management of the convicts in the workshops. Thus the prisoners, for whom labor became obligatory, were for the first time classed as laborers and their work for the different seasons definitely regulated.

According to the regulations, the prisoners receive as remuneration a discount in the cost of the material employed in the work—for those condemned to prison, 40 per cent.; for those committed to correctional institutions, 33 per cent., and for exiled convicts, 10 per cent. One-half of the excess goes into the treasury of the Government and the other goes to the prison. The prisoners who participate voluntarily in the work of the prisons receive 60 per cent. of the common profit. The remaining 40 per cent. goes to the prison. In case the convicts engage in work not provided by the prison, such as work for which there are no proper tools, work which requires special knowledge or exceptional skill, their earnings are to undergo no reduction. The proportion of the profit of the prisoners is fixed in each institution by special regulations issued by the administration general of prisons. The compensation to which the prisoner is entitled can not be converted to other purposes In case of his death, it goes to his heirs.

The three years which have elapsed since this new law of Russia came into operation do not afford time enough to determine accurately the results. There has been great difficulty in the execution of the law. The prisons were not of suitable construction, and then the Russians are an agricultural people, and a convict from that class must learn the trade to which he is set. He becomes an apprentice. In the localities where there are mechanics there is the same disadvantage, for the workman outside labors on a section of the article being constructed, and can work in prison only on the part with which he has experience. A great difficulty in modifying prisons to introduce labor has been the serious want of funds. To make shops in prison, to supply

tools or machinery, much money is required. Capital is also required to supply material. Then the location of a prison in a sparse population where there are few to purchase the articles produced is another hindrance. The quality of the articles made by this labor, which is often rude, is such that they can not come into competition with the products of skilled labor, and in this way their sale is hindered. The effect of prison labor on free labor is one which has often been discussed in this and in other countries, and free labor has never encouraged prison labor. This influence tends to lower the prices of prison products.

These are some of the obstacles which come in the way of prison labor in Russia and generally in other countries. But on the whole, notwithstanding these unfavorable influences, there has been in Russia a steady advance in the work of establishing labor in the prisons and with beneficial results. If it has not always proved remunerative on the capital invested, the system so far as developed has given the prisoners a fixed and permanent employment which is essential to reformatory régime and to prevent relapses into crime by teaching trades whereby the convict becomes self-supporting.

Outside of prisons, the city authorities have employed convicts on the streets with good results, while on the shores of great rivers they have been employed in loading and unloading vessels.

They have also been employed with advantage on public works. The work on the construction of the highway of Kief-Jitourir, in the government of Valhynie, and that on the bridge over the Téteref River have proved a remarkable economy for the state. Their employment in the construction of the Stavropal road and the aqueduct of Tiflis was also satisfactory.

The organization of this labor was to interest the prisoners, to assure them a portion of the earnings, and to lead them to exercise a surveillance over each other which would prevent negligence or flight while at work. It is through the execution of the law of 1886 that Russia has organized her prison labor, and it is by reason of such prison labor that it has been able to make the extensive exhibit in the exposition of the Prison Congress of St. Petersburg. And the share which Russia has in this great exhibit sufficiently demonstrates the advance of that country in prison reform, and especially in its most important feature, that of employment for prisoners.

In the proceedings, the views of some of the members are given on this subject.

REGULAR SESSIONS OF THE CONGRESS.

Monday, June 16, at 10 a. m., the members of the three sections of the International Prison Congress met in their respective rooms in the Palace of the Assembly of the Nobility. Each room was a large hall, convenient, well lighted, and appropriate. Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, as president of the commission of organization and president of the Inter-

national Prison Commission, attended successively the three sections and opened the business. He requested each of the sections to name its several officers. On these occasions he expressed the hope that the congress would thoroughly dispose of all questions and business which should come before it and leave no unfinished business for the next congress. In compliance with the request of Mr. Wraskoy the several sections appointed the following officers:

Section 1.—President, Mr. Pols, Netherlands; vice presidents, Mr. Annerstedt, Sweden; Mr. Canonico, Italy; Mr. Dumas, France; Mr. Föhring, Hamburg; Mr. Milenko-Wesnitch, Servia; and Dr. Stark, Prussia. Secretary, Mr. Golovine; assistant secretaries, Mr. Rasselli, Mr. de Brevern, Mr. Tcherman, Mr. Gifkovitch, and Mr. Bogdanian; attachés, Baron de Heyking, Mr. de Reutern, Mr. Kahl, and Mr. Coudrine.

Section 2.—President, Mr. Goos, Denmark; vice presidents, Mr. Blanc, France; Mr. Jahn, Saxony; Mr. Ihling, Prussia; Mr. Prins, Belgium; Mr. Randall, United States; Mr. Woxen, Norway; and Mr. Yvernè, France. Secretary, Baron de Taubé; assistant secretaries, Baron de Graevenitz, Baron de Meyendorff, Baron de Stahl de Holstein, and Mr. Verevkine; attachés, Mr. Mouraview-Apostol Carabyine, Count Hendrikow, Mr. Henri Pessina, and Mr. Victor Almquist.

Section 3.—President, Mr. de Jagemann; vice presidents, Mr. Ferreira Deusdato, Portugal; Mr. Fetzer, Würtemburg; Mr. Nocito, Italy; Mr. Hill, England; Mr. Stoos, Switzerland; and Mr. Voisin, France. Secretaries, Mr. Tsekhanovetsky; assistant secretaries, Count Keller, Mr. Batorsky, Mr. Listchinsky, Mr. Poutilow, and Mr. Kamenetsky; attachés, Mr. Ostafiew, Mr. Priklonsky, Mr. Ponomarew, and Mr. Mark.

The several sections after naming their officers and completing their organization fixed the order of business for the next session, and adjourned to meet the next day in the forenoon.

GENERAL ASSEMBLY.

At 11 o'clock in the forenoon of June 16 the three sections met in general assembly in the great hall of the Assembly of the Nobility for organization. At this place it may be as well to give a list of the members to show their number, names, and the various countries represented. Aside from the Russian delegation there were about 125 foreign delegates present. With the Russian members there were over 200 in all. The names of the Russian delegates are given only in part in this list.

LIST OF MEMBERS:

Baden.—Mr. Adolf Fuchs, privy counselor of finance at Carlsruhe, official delegate.

Dr. Gutsch, privy councilor and former chief physician of the prisons of Bruschal, member of the central committee of the Society of Patronage, official delegate.

Dr. Eugene de Jagemann, ministerial counselor at Carlsruhe, and chief of the delegation from Baden.

Dr. de Kirchenheim, professor at Heidelberg, official delegate.

Bavaria.—Mr. Valentine Reisenbach, counselor to the minister of justice at Munich, official delegate.

Hamburg.—Mr. Föehring, presiding judge in Hamburg, and official delegate.

Mme. Föehring.

Nassau.—Dr. Keller, priest at Weisbaden, president and delegate of the Prison Association of Nassau.

Prussia.—Mr. Braumbehrens, superior privy counrcilor to the ministe of the interior of Prussia, Berlin, official delegate.

Mr. Illing, superior privy councilor to the minister of the interior of Prussia, Berlin, official delegate.

Mme. Illing.

Mr. Krohne, director of the prison of Moabit, Berlin.

Mr. Starke, superior privy councilor to the minister of justice of Prussia at Berlin, official delegate.

Mr. Volkman, attaché to the German ambassador, St. Petersburg.

Saxony.—Mr. Jaeppel, privy councilor to the minister of the interior of Saxony at Dresden, official delegate.

Mr. Iahn, privy councilor to the minister of justice at Dresden, official delegate.

Würtemburg.—Mr. Fetzer, counselor and attorney-general, Heilbron, official delegate.

England.—Mr. Alfred Hill, magistrate and delegate of the Reformatory and Refuge Union.

Mr. John Campbell, director of the central prison of Perth.

Dr. Mouat, vice president of the Royal Statistical Society of London.

Argentine Republic.—Mr. Edward Ybarbalz, charge d'affaires of the legation of the Argentine Republic to the imperial and royal government of Austria-Hungary at Vienna, official delegate.

Austria-Hungary.—M. Y. Boek, counselor in the court of appeals, Budapesth.

Count Chorinsky, presiding judge in Budapesth, official delegate.

Mme. Countess Chorinsky.

Mr. Gustave de Groisz, professor in the university of Koloszvar.

Mr. Sigismond Làszlò, ministerial counselor to the minister of justice at Budapesth, official delegate.

Dr. Leitmaier, imperial and royal attorney-general, Gratz, official delegate.

Mr. Joseph de Levay, secretary of the prison commission at Budapesth.

Mr. Stanislas de Natecz Korzeniowski, priest and director of patronage.

Dr. Ferdinand Saria, advocate, Gratz.

Count Henri Skarbek, member of the patronage committee and trustee of the orphan asylum.

Belgium.—Mr. Delatour, director-general of prisons and of public safety, Brussels, official delegate.

Mr. Prins, professor and inspector-general of the prisons of Brussels, official delegate.

Mr. Stevens, director of the prison of St. Gilles, Brussels, official delegate.

Mr. Hippolyte Quirini, president of the administrative prison commission, Louvain.

Denmark.—Mr. F. Ammitzboell, director of the prison in Vridsloeselille.

Mr. Birch, member of the criminal court.

Mr. Galskjol, Copenhagen.

Mr. Charles Goos, director-general of prisons, Copenhagen, official delegate.

Mr. Hanrowitz, state counselor, Copenhagen.

Mr. Nanche, judge of the district of Odder Aarhus.

Mr. Berlème Nix, representing two establishments of Flakkebyerg and of Lauderupgaard.

Mme. Berlème Nix.

Mr. Palisen, vice-consul of Denmark, St. Petersburg.

Mr. Carsten Petersen, chief of police, Copenhagen.

Mme. Anna Petersen, member of several patronage societies, Copenhagen.

Mr. Stuckenberg, editor of the Penitentiary Review of the North.

Spain.—Mr. Juan de Dios de la Rada y Delgrado, member of the superior council of prisons, in Madrid, senator and official delegate.

Mr. Gonzalo Cedron de la Pedraja, Madrid.

Mr. Raphael Sallilas, chief of the sanitary service of the prisons in Madrid, official delegate.

Mr. Eugenio Silvela, Madrid.

United States of America.—Mr. C. D. Randall, resident member of the board of control of the State public school of Michigan for dependent children, at Coldwater, Michigan, official delegate.

Mr. Charles E. Smith, minister of the United States to the Imperial Government of Russia, in St. Petersburg, official delegate.

Mr. Wurts, counselor of legation to the United States minister, St. Petersburg.

France.—Mr. F. Barra, officer of the academy, inspector of the transfer service, Paris.

Mr. Xavier Blanc, senator, Paris.

Mr. Boursans, inspector-general of the administration of prisons for the secretary of the interior, vice president of the committee on conditional liberation, official delegate, Paris.

Mr. Brun, director of the penitentiary colony of St. Hilaire, official delegate.

Mr. Brunot, chief of the press service for the minister of the interior.

Mme. Brunot.

Count Le Courbe, secretary of the "Société Générale des Prisons" and delegate from the society of discharged prisoners of St. Lazare.

Mr. Darlot, general counselor of the department of the Seine and president of the commission for prison buildings, Paris.

Dr. Merry Delabost, superintendent of the sanitary service of the prisons of Rouen (Lower Seine), official delegate.

Mr. Ferdinand Dreyfus, former deputy, member of the superior council of prisons, official delegate.

Mr. Dumas, state counselor, director of criminal affairs and of pardons to the minister of justice.

Mr. Jacques Hausmann, director of the administration of colonial affairs, official delegate.

Mr. Louis Herbette, state counselor, director of the prison administration of France, and chief of the official delegation of France.

Mr. Joly, professor of criminal law and penitentiary science and honorary dean of the faculty of Paris.

Mr. Laguesse, director of the Santé prison, Paris, official delegate.

M. de Lavaissière de Lavergne, director of the division of transportation, official delegate.

Mr. Jules Leveillé, professor in the University of Paris.

Mr. Leygues, deputy, Paris.

Mr. Louvard, chief of the bureau of public works, especially charged with the care of prison buildings of the department of the Seine.

Mr. Marnejouls, deputy.

Mr. Mollat, member of the Société Générale des Prisons.

Mr. Normand, architect, inspector-general of the prisons of Paris, official delegate.

Mr. Pages, chief of the bureau of the minister of finance and member of the Société Générale des Prisons.

Mr. Peyron, Paris.

Mr. Reynaud, chief of the bureau of the minister of the interior, secretary of the superior council of prisons, official delegate.

Mr. Rivière, former magistrate and member of the Société Générale des Prisons.

Mr. Rollet, advocate and secretary general of the society for the protection of children, official delegate, Paris.

Mr. Theophile Roussel, senator, member of the superior council of prisons.

Mr. Roussel, member of the council general of the Seine.

Mr. Sautumier, advocate.

Mr. Souriaux, director of the central prison of Beaulieu, Caen.

Mr. Strauss, member of the council general of the Seine, Paris.

Mr. Veiller, director of the central prison of Lauderman.

Mr. Felix Voisin, former deputy, counselor of the court of appeals, and member of the superior council of prisons, official delegate.

Mr. Yvernes, chief of division for the minister of justice and religion.

Greece.—Mr. Alexander Skouses, member of the Greek Parliament, official delegate.

Italy.—Mr. Bernardin Alimena, advocate and professor, Cosenza.

Mr. Beltrani-Scalia, director-general of the prisons of Italy, official delegate.

Mr. Bernabo-Silorata, inspector-general of prisons.

Mr. Emile Brusa, professor in the University of Turin, official delegate from the Italian minister of justice.

Mr. Augusto Bosco.

Mr. Tancred Canonico, senator of the Kingdom of Italy, official delegate.

Mr. Hector Ciolfi, director of the Jurisprudence Universal Review, Rome, delegate from the Society of Advocates.

Mr. Nocito, professor and deputy of Parliament.

Mr. Henri Pessina, senator of the Kingdom of Italy, official delegate.

Mr. Romeo Taverni, professor of the University of Catane.

Japan,—Mr. Nissi, minister of Japan to the Imperial Government of Russia, St. Petersburg.

Mr. Ohmaie, secretary of the Japanese legation.

Norway.—Mr. A. Daal, director of the central prison of Trondhjem.

Mr. Harold Smedal, attorney for the King, Christiania.

Mr. Woxen, director-general of the prisons of Norway.

Netherlands.—Mr. D. Z. Van Duyl, deputy recorder of Amsterdam.

Mr. Pols, professor in the University of Utrecht, official delegate.

Portugal.—Mr. Antonio Ferreira Deusdado, professor in Lisbon, official delegate.

Servia.—Mr. Milenko-Vesnitsch, doctor of laws, official delegate.

Sweden.—Mr. Victor Almquist, attaché of the prison administration of Sweden.

Mme. Almquist.

Mr. Samuel Ludvig Annerstedt, former judge of the supreme court and president of the law commission, official delegate.

Switzerland.—Mr. G. Correvon, judge of the cantonal court of Lausanne and delegate from the Swiss Prison Society.

Dr. Guillaume, chief of the federal bureau of statistics in Berne, secretary general of the fourth congress, and member and secretary of the International Prison Commission, official delegate.

Dr. Riggenbach, chaplain of the prison of Bale-Villè, official delegate.

Dr. Francois La Roche, member of the municipal council, president of the committee of patronage of Bâle and delegate of the Swiss patronage society.

Mr. Ferdinand Rüsch, doctor of laws, Basle, and delegate of the Swiss law society.

Dr. Stoos, professor and judge of the court of appeals, Berne, official delegate.

Turkey.—D'Jelal-Bey-Effendi, director of the criminal division to the minister of justice, Constantinople, official delegate.

Russia.—The names of the Russian delegates will appear in the proceedings of the congress, to be published by the International Prison Congress, but are too numerous to be given here. There were over three hundred names on the list, and probably one hundred were in attendance. It will be noted that by the rules each government had only one vote where there were several official delegates. The large number of its delegates did not give Russia a preponderance of the votes on conclusions.

The delegates from Russia generally were especially fitted for their duties, being selected from specialists in prison management or from those who were familiar with penal law.

Not only as president of the congress, as president of the committee of organization and of the International Prison Commission, but as the leader of the Russian members, Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy was in position and labors at the head of his people. Always active, social, and cordial, this gentleman, of great executive ability, was always present, assisting in the councils and work of the congress. His long experience at the head of the administration of Russian prisons and his living sympathy with the most advanced thought in prison reform eminently fitted him to represent Russia and to lead in this congress. Russia gave the best material she had to this congress. Representing most directly the Emperor, his kinsman, Prince d'Oldenburg, was the honorary president of the congress and frequently attended, and by social attentions and otherwise showed his interest in the members and the congress. He was often accompanied and assisted by his wife, the Princess d'Oldenburg.

Among the Russian delegates were Count Delianou, minister of public instruction; Mr. Dournovo, minister of the interior; Mr. de Hubbenet, minister of roads and bridges; Mr. Manasseine, minister of justice; Mr. Ostrovski, minister of domains; Mr. Wannowski, minister of war, and Mr. Tchikhatchew, minister of the marine. There were also present the Russian inspector-general of prisons, the director of the society of prisons, the secretary of state, the minister of foreign affairs, directors of prisons, advocates, professors of the universities, members of the jurisprudence society of St. Petersburg, senators of Russia, and senators of Finland, governors of provinces, judges, the minister of the court, and other officials connected with the household of the Emperor, mayors of cities, including those of Moscow and St. Petersburg, members of the imperial council, delegates from penal and reformatory institutions, and other official and private persons. The names omitted

were as important as those mentioned, and include many of the ablest gentlemen and best workers in the congress.

At the time stated, June 16, in the general assembly, on being called to order, Mr. Beltrani-Scalia proposed the name of Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy as president of the congress. This proposition was adopted by acclamation and with applause.

Mr. Wraskoy thanked the congress in appropriate words for the honor conferred, and added that he could accept the duties only on condition that the congress would add as associate presidents Mr. Beltrani-Scalia and Mr. Herbette, the first having been his predecessor as president of the International Prison Commission and the second being then the vice president of that commission.

By acclamation the assembly acceded to the desire expressed by Mr. Wraskoy, and appointed Mr. Beltrani-Scalia and Mr. Herbette as associate presidents.

Mr. Wraskoy proposed then as vice presidents Messrs. Don Juan de Dios de la Rada y Delgado, Spain; Laszlo, Hungary; de Latour, Belgium; Leitmaier, Austria; Pessina, Italy; Reissenbach, Bavaria; Roussel, France; and Skouses, Greece.

Secretary-general, Dr. Guillaume, Switzerland; assistant sécretariés, Messrs. Corrévon, Likhatchew, Komarow.

Attachés, Messrs. Prince Galitzin, Svétchine, and Pribéjaew.

These propositions were adopted by acclamation.

Mr. Herbette took the floor and said:

Mr. PRESIDENT: Permit me to say a word. Our eminent and generous hosts of Russia have declined to take, in the bureau of the congress and in the bureau of the sections, the places which their merit, their knowledge, and their high situation give them the right to. We are not able to subdue this sentiment, so delicate and hospitable, and this obstinate resistance, which is a refinement of amiability. It is necessary that we here all manifest our regrets and add the most cordial thanks to the distinguished gentlemen, who can not at least prevent us from expressing our gratitude.

Dr. Guillaume, the secretary-general, read the account of the previous session which was adopted. He then presented letters and telegrams of regret for inability to attend the congress. Among them were: Senator Ritscher, of Lubeck; Dr. Motet, Paris; Madame Charlotte von Mayer, Bonn; Mr. Armengol y Cornet, Barcelona; P. de Broca, France; D. H. Delprat, of Rotterdam; General Lathrop, director of the prison, Sing Sing, N. Y.; L. von Bar, professor at Göttingen, and L. Paulian, France. The latter accompanied his letter with a pamphlet, in which he recommended the creation of an International Prison Library. This question was referred to the third section.

The letter of Sir Walter Crofton, the originator of the Irish prison system, was read at length and highly interested the assembly. He expressed his great regret at his inability to attend the congress and take part in its work. He said that the interest in penitentiary questions in England had decreased for the reason that these questions had

had their solution in the institutions of their country which had given satisfactory results. He recalled the fact that it was 30 years ago when he introduced in Ireland the progressive, or good-conduct system, which had produced good effects and yet had not been adopted in England until about 10 years ago. If it takes England so long a time to adopt a system from one of its kingdoms, it is easy to understand why Russia has not advanced more rapidly in her reforms. He bears testimony to the fact that the report of Mr. Wraskoy on Russian prisons proves the advance that Russia has made in prison reform, and closed by expressing hopes for the success of the congress.

Mr. Foinitzky moved that a dispatch be sent to Sir Walter Crofton, the illustrious author of the Irish prison system, as a mark of respect. Mr. Wraskoy supported the proposition, adding that he had intended to present it himself, and now asked to include in the motion the names of all persons invited who have not been able to attend. The proposition was adopted by acclamation.

Mr. Wraskoy continued to speak and recalled the name of the noted men lost to penitentiary science since the last session and spoke especially of Mr. Almquist, inspector-general of the prisons of Sweden, and Baron Holtzendorff. On the request of the president the assembly arose in honor of the memory of the illustrious dead. Dr. Riggenbach, chaplain of the penitentiary of Basle, spoke as follows:

Mr. PRESIDENT AND COLLEAGUES: I have learned, not without emotion, that yesterday, on the occasion of the solemn opening of the congress, His Excellency Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy placed a crown on the tomb of a celebrated champion of prison reform in Russia. I wish to speak of Walter Venning, of whom our colleague, Mr. Salomon, said in his learned addrsss that he joined to a heart tender as a woman's a will of iron and an indefatigable activity. I am confident that every member of congress will love to join in rendering homage to the memory of a man who has devoted his life and his labors to his work in a time less favorable than ours. I propose that in thanking our respected president for so delicate an attention and so noble an act, that the members join in a mark of respect by rising in their seats in memory of the brave Walter Venning.

The assembly heartily united in this manifestation of esteem.

DISCUSSIONS IN THE SECTIONS.

The three sections began their discussions in their respective halls June 16 and continued the same until and including the 22d, each confining itself to the questions of the programme appropriate to the section. The minutes of debates are in the hands of the secretary general for publication in the proceedings of the congress.

The manner in which these discussions were carried on may be understood to some extent by giving a brief account of the first discussion on the first or penal section. This section opened Monday, June 16, at 2 p. m. Mr. Spasowicz, assistant reporter, opened the discussion of the first question of the programme. He read a prepared summary of the conclusions of Messrs. Reynaud, Lammasch, Dr. Starke, and Dr.

Tagantzeff, and the Jurisprudence Society of St. Petersburg, and submitted his conclusions by motion. This was followed by a debate by Messrs. Poustoroslew, Reynaud, Starke, and Dreyfus. There seemed to be quite a divergence of opinion, Messrs. Spasowicz, Poustoroslew, and Starke pronouncing in favor of the negative, Messrs. Reynaud and Dreyfus on the contrary inclined to the affirmative. The president considered that the views as expressed could be harmonized, and suggested an amendment which was made, and thus amended the resolution of Mr. Spasowicz was unanimously adopted by the section. As the resolution is in substance embraced in the conclusions of the general assembly it is unnecessary to produce it here.

The assistant reporter was authorized to present the conclusions reached to the general assembly.

Then the second question of the programme was taken up and considered. Mr. Sliosberg, assistant reporter, gave a summary of the reports of Messrs. Heintze, Canonico, Lilienthal, Motet, and Baer, and presented and moved his resolution of conclusions. Then followed speaking on the motion by Messrs. Woulfert, Canonico, Brusa, Pesoina, Galovinsky, Neckliondoff, and Drill. The discussion was not completed at the time of adjournment and was to be continued the following day.

In this way the working hours from the 16th to the 21st, inclusive, were occupied by the discussions of the sections, generally in the forenoons when conclusions were adopted which were presented to the general assembly in the afternoons and there were again discussed, sometimes amended and then adopted. To give even a summary of these debates, which were often animated and able, would require considerable space. It is doubtful, too, whether the debates would show as well as the preliminary reports and the conference addresses the better formulated and maturer ideas regarding penitentiary science. Hence the conference addresses in full or in abstract have been given in this report, and some of the reports and abridgements of others on some of the more important questions in each of the sections, penal, reformatory, and preventive. These will show to some extent the tendency of European thought in the development of penal science, a subject that has attractions for a very few, but which has an importance it would be well if all appreciated.

The conferences were generally held in the evening. Some were omitted as it was found impossible to find time for more by reason of the banquets and other courtesies extended to the members. These conferences were of special value as they brought out conspicuously the subject considered, and led to maturer deliberation of the question discussed.

First Section—Penal.—Question 2.

Dr. Motet on Intoxication and Crime.

The following is the report of Dr. A. Motet, medical expert of the tribunal and the court of Paris. The high standing of the author en-

titles his words to special weight, and his paper is reproduced in full. He writes on the second question of the first section as follows:

The alarming progress of intemperance has become for modern society a subject of grave anxiety. On all sides we seek for some means to arrest the overwhelming march of an evil which strikes at the same time the individual, the family, and society. The efforts of governments on one side and of temperance associations on the other have secured only incomplete results. Must we seek in special legislation severe penalties against drunkenness as a remedy for an evil which takes on the proportions of a scourge? This is the question that the commission of organization of the Prison Congress of St. Petersburg has presented for consideration.

The reply would be easy, if it related to simple intoxication or to habitual drunkenness, to those persons who in England or in America are known as "habitual drunkards." But the consumption of alcohol of commerce has singularly modified the character of intemperance for nearly half a century. For the reeling drunkard, filling the street with his songs, more noisy than dangerous, is substituted the alcoholist, undergoing poisonous and often convulsive action from alcoholic liquors of all species, as varied in their names as in their composition, all alike terrible in their effects. The first gorges himself with wine; his stomach, revolting against the enormous quantity of liquids, expels them, there are increased urinary secretions, and sleep, profound and heavy, terminates a debauch without grave consequences. The second drinks less, but what he drinks is bad.

The drunkard tends more and more to become quarrelsome, aggressive, brutal, and the number of assaults by persons intoxicated has increased to a remarkable degree.

Owing to the fact that intoxication is more rapid and more profound the question is singularly complicated; it presents itself under a double aspect—that of the necessary repression of a vice which has become a social danger, and that of the valuation of the physical, intellectual, and moral state of the individual whom the law should reach.

It appears, then, difficult to us, to-day, to reduce to simple terms a question which admits extended unfolding. The legislature should not neglect to examine all points of the problem, at the risk of allowing, in practice, most serious difficulties to arise. Without pretending to formulate a solution, in a penal point of view, we believe that we would do a useful work in presenting to the prison congress some general considerations upon the various conditions of "alcoholism," which clinical study has enabled us to distinguish, one from the other.

If the French law is mute on the question of excuse drawn from the state of intoxication of the author of the crime or misdemeanors, if there be no fixed law, the judges in the mean time have shown according to the circumstances more or less severity, and the court of appeals has several times spoken in the line of energetic repression. In the works of our jurists, our criminal law writers, there are not less than two very different currents of opinion. The one takes no account of the intoxication and systematically considers only the offense; the other, more indulgent, sees in the delinquent in a state of drunkenness an irresponsible agent, an unconscious machine. Others, finally, establishing varieties in the degree, in the form of intoxication, mitigate more or less the criminal character of the act and exonerate the accused from a part, more or less considerable, of the penalty.

By the indulgent the state of intoxication is considered as one of transient mental alienation; they show the existing analogies between the phenomena of drunkenness and those which are usually met in mania or in general paralysis; that intoxication is simply an error.

It does not seem to us possible to compare the drunken with the insane. "Fools do not wish" to intoxicate themselves; it is necessary to desire it. The insane often undergoes without sense an evil he has no power to withdraw from. The drunkard, on the contrary, has sought and produced intoxication; his mental faculties are im-

paired temporarily by a cause which had none of the fatality of hereditary predispositions, degeneration, etc.

For others, the attentive examination of the facts has led them to examine if at the moment of the commission of the offense the intoxication was complete or incomplete.

And distinguishing three degrees, they considered as responsible, that is to say, punishable, those who had reached only the first degree of intoxication; they extenuated the responsibility of those who had reached the second degree, and admitted the irresponsibility of the third. This was the doctrine of Friedrich and of Hoffbauer.

In practice, these distinctions above all those between the first and second are nearly impossible to justify. Mark has said this, and all those who are occupied with these special studies agree that they lead to nothing certain. "Theoretically" said Lentz, "we can establish this division of intoxication into three successive periods, but practically and especially in medical jurisprudence, these divisions can have no value and could not serve to fix the limits we seek."

Where then can we find the elements of a rigorous scientific estimate of the mental condition of the delinquent alcoholist? When will magistrates be permitted to inflict on him a just penalty? When should they consider him guiltless of a criminal act?

The question is the most delicate, the most difficult to decide. It is a difficult question for medical experts, and we must say that it is impossible to furnish a formula which can be applied to all cases. It is only by an individual examination, extending to the entire mental history of the delinquent in the state of intoxication, that one can arrive at a positive opinion. It is in proceeding this way that medical experts have been led to study intoxication under two aspects, very plain, very clear, and to distinguish simple from pathological intoxication.

Simple intoxication is that which prostrates a man, otherwise healthy, after alcoholic excess. We do not wish to enlarge on the varieties of simple drunkenness, although the nature of the poisonous agent plays a great rôle in the evolution of possible accidents. We hold to this precise determination—that temporary drunkenness may be avoided by individuals. Hence the act is voluntary and the consequences are chargeable to intoxication whether or not the drunkenness be habitual. The magistrates can then proportion the punishment to the antecedents of the prisoner. But should we hold to these elementary ideas? We think not. It is proper to inquire if drunkenness is produced in conditions such as the delinquent undergoes without having sought it. We have had to examine several individuals in special conditions; one, among others, a butcher boy, who descended to the cellar with his employer to put a barrel of wine into bottles. The alcoholic vapors intoxicated him. He was certain he was not drunk. When he ascended and the air struck him he suddenly became affected by the alcohol. One of his comrades joked him, and he flew into a passion, and seizing a knife on the stall wounded his companion, fortunately, slightly. Being arrested he submitted to an examination, and we had no hesitation in considering his intoxication as accidental and involuntary. Our opinion was accepted by the judges who were familiar with all the facts of the case. Induced intoxication is not less important to determine, and if the examination is more delicate than in the preceding case, it is not impossible in the mean time to establish the fact that the delinquent has undergone a training in which his will had no part. It is true that these cases are rare, as well as those in which drunkenness is premeditated, that is to say, when the criminal has sought in alcoholic excitement the resolution he would not have had without it.

We should indicate the distinctions. They seem to us to command the greatest reserve in the formula of an article of the penal code which specially relates to intoxication. In France, Chauveau, Faustin-Hélie, Rossi and Le Sellyer, consider that the man who commits a crime or a misdemeanor in a state of drunkenness may well be civilly responsible for the damage which he has caused by his negligence or imprudence,

but according to these writers he would not be criminally liable. But this opinion has never been accepted by the court of appeals. "Drunkenness is a voluntary and reprehensible fact, and it can never constitute an excuse which morality or law will accept." Mark and Tardieu are of this opinion. It is also ours. Simple intoxication is punishable, because it can, if unpunished, begin to-morrow the same excesses of which the consequences will be to compromise again the interests of society and individuals. Also we prefer the silence of the French law. It permits the judges to estimate the mental condition of the delinquent, to determine the form and intensity of the drunkenness and the nature of the poisonous agent. It is not rare to meet persons of defective cerebral organization, whose condition on one side is attributable to alcoholic intoxication, and on the other to mental defects of the accused whose resistance to alcohol is less than in one who has an organization less imperfect. We do not wish to say that these persons will always be irresponsible for offenses committed by them in a state of intoxication. There are many among them who know that they can not drink without danger. They should not expose themselves to alcoholic intoxication. But there are many also whose moral and mental debasement especially diminishes the resistance of the appetite for alcoholic drinks. They are found on the boundary, which is not well defined, between simple and pathological intoxication.

Pathological intoxication. This kind of intemperance differs from the preceding in this, that the preëxisting morbid condition added to the usual symptoms, acutely aggravated by alcohol, assumes a character immediately dangerous. According to the expression of Lentz "alcohol lights the fire whose ravages will be more extended in proportion as the materials upon which it feeds are more combustible."

And there exist besides insane, properly called, imbeciles and epileptics, with whom drunkenness is especially deplorable, a numerous class of degenerate persons, bearing heavily the burden of pathological heredity, capricious in their ideas and in their acts. These are true maladies in which the intoxicating action of alcohol manifests itself more frequently by dangerous impulses. These are the unbalanced, the hereditary drunkards, who cause the most serious embarrassment. We repeat here what we have had occasion to write and to say many times already, that for these alcoholists of a special kind of whom we mark the uniformity, suffering from mental disability without power to formulate fixed conclusions, it is as impossible to take severe judicial measures as lasting administrative action in the present state of legislation. If they are confined in an asylum they are cured from the attack which exhausts itself as soon as the poison is eliminated. Cured from a transient mental trouble, they ask to be discharged, or often interested but imprudent friends make the request and the physician of the asylum is not authorized to refuse. He yields, regretting his inability; he foresees the early return, perhaps, of the same disorders under the influence of the same cause, and the law does not permit him to extend protection, social defense.

It is for this class of alcoholized delinquents that we desire the adoption of more severe measures, those which are possible to take to-day, but I dare not insist, fearing to call up an order of considerations foreign to the programme of the commission of congress, which is less occupied, if we understand it well, with the administrative, than with the judicial and penal question of intemperance.

The considerations which we submit to the congress have aimed, above all, to separate simple from pathological intoxication. We have perhaps treated the question more as a physician than as a lawyer. We have to excuse ourselves for want of sufficient ability for easily putting things in the proper place. However, we believe we are authorized to present the following conclusions:

1. In the interest of social order, of family protection, of individual preservation, voluntary intoxication should be considered as a misdemeanor and severely repressed with increase of punishment in the case of relapse.

2. The habitual drunkard should be deprived of his civil rights and his removal from office should be secured by the public minister. And as a corollary we add that persons affected by delirious attacks, active or subactive, from alcoholic intoxication, should be maintained in a special establishment during a long time. Their discharge should be postponed until every trace of intoxication has disappeared and an early relapse will not be feared.

To give to our thought a more definite form we will say:

Drunkenness is punishable, as well as misdemeanors or crimes committed under its influence, when it is classed as simple and when it is manifestly in the power of the delinquent to avoid it.

It is punishable with increase of punishment when the intoxication has been sought to incite the commission of a crime or misdemeanor.

Drunkenness is punishable, but with a degree of mitigation which belongs to the magistrate to determine, in the case of persons of feeble intelligence whose ability to resist alcoholic desires is diminished by the inferior condition of their mental organization. They should not be exculpated when they know that they can not drink without danger, and this is the case more frequently than is supposed.

Crimes or misdemeanors can not be punished when they are committed during delirium, acute or subacute, from a paroxism of alcoholism. It is the same in the case of chronic alcoholism, when the definite cerebral injuries have compromised the integrity of the organ and determined the durable disorder of its functions.

Mr. Tancred Canonico, an eminent senator of the Kingdom of Italy, and one of the most able and prominent members of the congress, presented a lengthy report on the second question of the first section. The following are the conclusions on penal legislation affecting intemperance which he submitted to the wisdom of the congress:

1. Intoxication in itself can never be punished when it is involuntary or accidental.

When voluntary intoxication is public it should be punished as dangerous to morality and public tranquility, and the degree of the punishment should be higher when the intoxication is habitual.

Public intoxication, by itself, although voluntary, does not have the real character of a misdemeanor; it constitutes only an offense, and should be punished by police penalties only.

These penalties should also be applied to those who voluntarily exhibit a drunken man in public, as well as wine-shop keepers who give alcoholic drinks to men who are plainly drunk, or to children who are evidently under 14 years of age.

2. In the case of the commission of a crime or a misdemeanor while intoxicated: When the intoxication is complete, if it is involuntary or accidental, the agent is never penally responsible. If it is voluntary, and more so if it is habitual, and the agent had not contemplated the criminal act before intoxication, the crime or misdemeanor committed during the intoxication should be charged and punished as the result of an error.

If, on the contrary, the agent had projected the crime or misdemeanor before that time and if he became intoxicated to commit the offense or to make an excuse for it, the crime or misdemeanor should be punished as the result of fraud, but with a punishment considerably less than the ordinary penalty.

When intoxication is incomplete, the crime or misdemeanor committed at the time is chargeable as an offense, though in a less degree than in complete drunkenness. It does not matter if the intoxication has been voluntary or involuntary, if in the case of voluntary intoxication the agent has contemplated the criminal act before intoxication.

In the mean time, to determine the extent of decrease in the usual punishment, it is

necessary to estimate either the degree of intoxication or the coöperation of the will in the act of intoxication, and of the voluntary use made of drunkenness as a means to facilitate the perpetration of the projected crime.

Senator Canonico, after stating his conclusions, adds the following at the close of his discourse:

Such is the solution which I submit to the congress on the question of penal legislation relative to intemperance. But we should not forget that the law can only give general directions in fixing clearly the basis of essential right for each conviction. It belongs to the judges to seize the spirit of the law and to apply it properly in each individual case. There are many who believe that the prosperity of a state is assured when it has good laws. Good laws are necessary, without doubt, but that is not all. The true guaranty of the regular and salutary operation of social authority is in the personal qualities of the public officers. The law is made for man, that is to say, for a moral being, one in his nature but multiplied in his individual variety. The law can not become a vital element of society except in the different special cases it is applied in a manner corresponding to the different conditions of each person. And this can not be done in penal matters, except by magistrates who are themselves the living incarnation of law, who to the exact knowledge of positive law, to a right sentiment of its spirit, to zeal for justice and public security, unite a sincere and impartial love for the man whom they are called to judge, so that they will not consider in advance each prisoner as an enemy of society, but retain the liberty to recognize cases which are not uncommon, where the accused is more unfortunate than guilty.

The commission of the Jurisprudence Society of St. Petersburg presented numerous reports on the various questions submitted. Mr. Sliosberg, advocate, of St. Petersburg, on behalf of that commission, presented a report on the second question.

The following are his conclusions:

1. The state of intoxication, considered in itself, should not constitute a crime; it only calls for repression where it is accompanied by violations of order, safety, and good manners.

2. The utility of legislative provisions establishing measures of restraint in regard to subjects continually or habitually given to drunkenness should not be denied; the provisions having only a repressive character for those cases where there is habitual intoxication, the person will then become a public charge or, above all, will become a beggar or a drunkard.

3. It is urgent that the proprietors of retail wine shops should be held responsible for the sale of strong liquors to individuals who are manifestly already intoxicated.

4. The state of intoxication can affect the punishment as an extenuating circumstance, but the criminal law should not give a general definition in cases of this kind; it deals only with general provisions concerning the punishments and the circumstances on which they depend.

5. The condition of the drunkard should never aggravate the punishment, except in the case of intoxication premeditated for the purpose of committing an offense.

Mr. Charles Baer, counselor of the Oberlandesgericht in Carlsruhe, closes his report or address on the first part of the second question of the first section with the following conclusions:

1. Intoxication can not be considered as a general excuse for crime.

2. Except where the intoxication is brought on by design, for the purpose of committing a premeditated crime, and where the criminal result of the intoxication could

have been foreseen, the penal responsibility of the delinquent can not be admitted if the intoxication suppresses the free will of the author of the crime. The fact that intoxication is chargeable to the fault of the latter modifies nothing in principle.

I do not discuss the controverted question whether it can be admitted that free will is excluded by the complete disorder of the senses while consciousness exists, or whether free will is excluded by the suppression of consciousness. It is not desirable that this question should be regulated by law, because such solution by the legislature could never prevent that of the question of free will and the loss of consciousness by the courts in a manner free from all legislative influence.

3. If we treat intoxication as "delictum sui generis," occasioned by the fault of the drinker and instigating offenses, these offenses committed in a state of drunkenness and irresponsibility chargeable to the offender can not be taken into consideration by themselves, and only as natural circumstances to influence the extent of the punishment.

4. Accidental intoxication, not chargeable to the drinker, excludes culpability.

As to the second part of the second question relative to mitigation or aggravation of the penalty when the crime has been committed in a state of drunkenness, Mr. Baer spoke also at some length.

SECOND SECTION—QUESTION 6.

MR. BROCKWAY ON INCORRIGIBILITY.

"Are we at liberty to declare any criminals or delinquents to be incorrigible, and, if so, what means should be used to protect society against them?"

Complete protection against incorrigible criminals requires that their crimes shall not only cease, but that they shall exert no evil influence for crimes by others, and that they shall be restrained in such a manner that no public expense is incurred. To incapacitate by destroying them would certainly afford protection as against their further crimes, and, once accomplished, would relieve society from any further cost for their maintenance; but, possibly, the evil effect of life-taking for incorrigibility might prove worse than to permit them to live and pursue their criminal calling. There is much reason to believe that a frequent infliction of the death penalty for crimes has a debasing effect upon society at large, and we are not at all sure that the fact of incorrigibility should be taken as prima facie evidence of mental defect or aberration in the criminal. In which case, it may be said that the state of public sentiment which, insensible or indifferent to the cruelty of it, destroys the life of incorrigible criminals, would also put to death the incurably insane and remediless defectives of every kind, indicating thus a state of barbarism favorable to crimes, the crimes and the criminals in turn actually contributing to the public sentiment that produces them.

Crime is savagery projected into civilization, but it is civilization itself that classifies as crimes the cruelty, brutality, and robbery which, in a different state of society, would be tolerated without complaint. Civilization, while seeking to repress crime, does at the same time greatly multiply the incentives to it, and by the competition and inequalities of life actually creates here and there conditions favorable to the production of criminals. If, then, crime is inevitable, it is of necessity inextricable, and so there can not be of course any complete protection from incorrigible criminals. If it is impossible, as it is unwise, to utterly destroy incorrigibles, then they should be restrained by their imprisonment.

It is believed, from the best information at hand, that the deportation of criminals to convict colonies is not the best imprisonment; indeed, to such as have had

opportunity only to observe the operation of the system from a distance, it seems an unreasonable one, and amusing that it has been so extensively in use. If the purpose of deportation is to deter others from crimes through fear of severing, by this penalty, the attachment of inhabitation, it can hardly be effective with the incorrigible class of criminals, because they, as a class, are not very strongly bound to place and home. They go away with gladness, or at least with indifference, if they are only journeying to new and untried surroundings. It is probable also that the desire to resume their associations with boon companions and even criminal associates already sent out to the criminal colony, having in some sense prepared the way, may be attractive, and with the criminally inclined class in society may often prove an incentive to actual crime. We are told, too, that the best administration of convict colonies has not, in the history of them, very completely prevented crimes by incorrigible criminals—not even during their period of colonial imprisonment. Moreover, if the conditions of imprisonment do not actually increase criminal tendencies, it is scarcely possible that any effective repression is maintained; in which case imprisonment in colonies can not contribute to diminish the danger of fresh crimes by the criminal on his release.

Any good degree of protection from incorrigible criminals by their imprisonment, whether imprisoned at home or abroad, must include, (*a*) that they be sentenced under the so-called indeterminate sentence principles; (*b*) that they be confined in prisons separate from the corrigible class; (*c*) that they be kept mainly within a prison inclosure with the least possible opportunity to communicate with outside persons or to know of current public affairs; (*d*) that when the public sentiment is enlightened enough to allow it they shall be employed at productive work, carried on for the earnings of it, and (*e*) the restraint and treatment to which they are subjected should be that which affords the best public protection without having any regard to purpose of punishment, whether retributive or deterrent.

The proposed separate prisons for incorrigibles would naturally form the lowest condition for the convicts of a State—the lowest in a graduated series of prison establishments. It is not difficult to organize and conduct such a prison so as to insure with reasonable certainty the safe custody of the criminals, but to avoid an evil influence of this prison upon the corrigible convicts undergoing reformative treatment in the prisons of a higher grade is not so easily accomplished. Unquestionably it is true that the incentives to improvement supplied to the better class of prisoners by what must of necessity be painfully sustained efforts and activities are likely to be considerably neutralized by the attractions of ease and quietness of convicts confined in the prisons for incorrigibles, where efforts for their betterment are much relaxed or abandoned, since by bad conduct and consequent transfer to the prisons for incorrigibles relief may be had from the exactions of reformative treatment.

On the other hand, it is an error to suppose that privation and hardships, introduced and intended solely to counteract such an effect, will, in the absence of a real benevolent purpose, be serviceable. Such hardships excite, both with the criminals and with the public at large, first, sympathy with the sufferer; then pity; and often a feeling of bitterness toward the government—a feeling which is, wherever it exists, opposed to the reformation of criminals and to the peace and security of society. For such reasons, and because the selection of incorrigible criminals must probably include among them some who are corrigible, this separate prison for the lowest class of criminals should, like the prisons of a better grade, compel the prisoner to pursue the processes of improving themselves, even though no reformations are expected to be accomplished among them. To this extent, at least, such processes should be enforced: The prisoner must be employed at productive work, so organized that he is obliged to earn the essentials of his own subsistence; earning what he has to live upon, and, within due limits, having for himself what he earns. Most stringent disciplinary regulations should be enforced—regulations that reach to very minute matters, to the personal habits and bearings of each, and to prevent

to the utmost all communication with each other and with any person outside of the prison. It is important, also, that these prisoners should be subjected to intellectual educational tasks, to be graduated to the maximum capacity of each, respectively. As to the particular prison system best for the imprisonment of incorrigibles, there may be good grounds for preferring the cellular system to any other, but, lest such a concession be misunderstood, it is here accompanied with the declaration that the cellular system is not preferable for the treatment of corrigible criminals, for their reformation and their proper preparation for the duties, the temptations, and the competitions of successful citizenship after their release from prison.

While so little is known of the philosophy of forming and reforming moral character, there need be no hesitation in affirming that some criminals are incorrigible. Whenever it shall be possible to completely correct the crookedness of all criminals, then it will be possible also to prevent the committing of crimes; and when crimes are altogether prevented we shall have an ideal state of society—a very millennial period begun. Such a consummation can scarcely be expected in our day, if only the rate of previous progress is to be maintained. If, after nearly nineteen centuries of human society gestant with the proclaimed principles of divine Fatherhood and human brotherhood, there is nothing better to show than the selfishness, the inequalities, the wretchedness of human suffering, and the legalized crimes of class against class that characterize our civilization, then, surely, the millennium is not at hand, ideal society is remote, crime is likely to continue, and some criminals must remain incorrigible. And does not all experience with criminals confirm such a conclusion?

This sixth question might be disposed of in a single sentence, to the effect that there are incorrigible criminals against whom society can have no complete protection, and that the best disposition of these is to perpetually imprison them. But by what test shall it be determined that particular criminals may be properly consigned to the incorrigible class?

The true answer to this interrogatory is intricate if not impossible. Certain of them are easily discoverable, but not all. Surprises await every searcher in this field. The incorrigible of to-day may turn out, when released, to be the safe citizen, and the most promising prisoner sometimes proves to be perverse. Very defective characters, if well situated, sail smoothly along, but in periods of unusual excitement they are easily thrown out of adjustment with their surroundings into criminal conduct and associations.

It is believed that the most satisfactory selection of incorrigibles is by a wise process of eliminating from among them those that are corrigible. This requires a reformative system of prison treatment for all, and involves, primarily, much reform of the criminal law and practice; important changes in the prison structures; greatly improved prison administration, and a more enlightened public sentiment to sustain a strictly scientific treatment of criminals, unembarrassed by partisanship or considerations of personal power or patronage.

Statistics purporting to show the percentage of criminals who are incorrigible are almost always very defective and unreliable. If, as it seems to be commonly construed, the term "incorrigible" is made to include all recidivists, misdemeanants as well as felons, then a very large proportion of prisoners belong to this category. Referring now to the prisoners of New York, if there be included those having been previously arrested, those imprisoned in juvenile prisons, in jails, and in county workhouses, as well as those previously in prison for felonies, it would not be an exaggeration to estimate the recidivists at 60 per cent. of the whole; and, no doubt, a similar basis for estimates would show as unfavorably for any civilized country in the world. Not all these recidivists are necessarily incorrigible. A more perfect system of laws and prisons and a better administration of them, may, in connection with other agencies, reduce the ratio of incorrigible criminals in the prisons of New York to 20 per cent., and, perhaps, even to 10 per cent. of the mass. The final residuum of criminals incapable of rehabilitation will be composed of three general and three specific subdivisions, namely:

1. Defectives, such as diseased, deformed, feeble-minded, drunkards, and others of epileptic diathesis.

2. The discouraged and hopeless class, notably those bereft of home very early in life and who are reared in benevolent institutions, "indigent faint souls, past corporal toil."

3. Exceptionally depraved persons, moral monsters, who are of unsound mind, but not yet generally recognized as decidedly insane.

It is often apparent in criminals that there is a likeness of mental habitude and physical power; the bodily tissue transforms itself into a criminal type until, even without physical abnormity, the presence of the criminal communicates an impression of repulsion or danger. One of the brightest minds among a number of young felons was tabernacled in a deformed body. He was a common street gamin, but was naturally philosophical, and had received in prison a good education, and was much improved in every way. On one occasion he was heard to remark as follows: "The deformities of my body but reveal the defects of my mind and moral character. As my body is asymmetral, so my mind is incommensurable. When my mood is a good one, then I am ashamed that I was ever otherwise; and, also, when evil is uppermost within me, then do I reproach myself for previous virtuous impulses."

Bodily disease operates, sometimes, to develop a natural animalism into the worst of bestiality, and an honest, respectable citizen when sober, becomes a thief when intoxicated. There is a neurosis, actual if obscure, which is a very common cause of abnormal impulse, feeble-mindedness, and diminished will-power, that characterize some incorrigible criminals. There is, too, a lowered vital tone, and absence of ambition to be or to do, specially observable with tramps and thieves, which may be fairly traced to degeneration derived from the circumstances of childhood, especially when much time is spent without homes and in charitable institutions. Such a case comes just now under my care. Orphaned and consigned to church guild at 5 years of age, spending the years until 16 between guild, juvenile asylum, and house of refuge. He then served nine several short terms in a prison for adult misdemeanors, when, at 22, he is committed for a felony, with a possible maximum period of imprisonment of 10 years. Though shapely enough and naturally capable enough, reared in one of the best of American cities, he honestly admits that he has always been dishonest, never having legitimately earned even one dollar. Living in society, he is not assimilated into society, but, as rubbish floats upon the surface of the stream, so he has been buffeted about on the surface of society, until he has imbibed or evolved a criminal psychical habitude which constitutes him an incorrigible.

Another phase of incorrigibleness is that of criminals whose spiritual faculties, that have to do with the supersensible world, are apparently abnormal. A sound mind in a sound body associated with habitual malevolence. Some evil afflatus inthralls them; minister as we may to the mind disease, no human alchemy has yet been found for healing such as these.

There are other incorrigible criminals not to be properly grouped with either of the before-named divisions; not necessarily recidivists, but prisoners for a single sentence, living afterwards in crime and criminal associations.

Instance.—W. T. He was of good family, possessed a good education, lived in affluence, his associates were good, and his early life was exemplary. In youth he became religious and joined the church, where his parents were also members; he was active and doubtless sincere in the religious work of his church and city. He married most satisfactorily, and his attractive home was, with the son born to him, all he could desire. His crime was forgery, by which he ruined himself, his own and his father's family. After his crime, previous to detection, he addressed, on a religious topic, hundreds of prisoners in the local prison of his city. His sincerity on this occasion was never doubted, and subsequent study of his character is convincing that

he could be sincerely religious and at the same time a scoundrel, without himself perceiving the incongruity.

Another instance.—"H." A man 30 or more years of age—a German, educated and accomplished in music and military matters, of attractive personal appearance, polite, obliging, generous, and sincere. He is not dissipated, and has been imprisoned but once; yet he is an incorrigible criminal. He marries often without himself intending it. The good qualities of his character, with his vanity and improvidence, bring him soon to finessing for funds, when he resorts to forgery and fraud without considering, or at least appreciating, the wrong and danger of it. He does not discriminate between using another's property legitimately and illegitimately; therefore he commits crime and runs away, to go over a similar experience in some new society.

Professional criminals may also be classed as exceptional incorrigibles, for the number of professional criminals in American prisons is not so great as is usually supposed. Probably not more than 10 per cent. of State prisoners in New York can be of this class. Professional criminals develop out of all the other classes of criminals, and their number is to be minimized by treating all prisoners of every phase, especially juvenile and misdemeanant criminals, for their reformation with a wise and effective prison system.

The study of incorrigible criminals is not advisable for those who are administering prisons. The habit of mind that sees in prisoners always that which is bad unfits largely for calling out in their life and character any germs of goodness that remain. That common and proper human instinct, which abhors the wrong and detests the wrong-doer, is likely to be overdeveloped with prison officials who dwell much on the character faults of their prisoners, and it is an easy transition from the habitual, hopeful sentiment, viz, that all are susceptible to soul improvement, to a pessimistic depression and detestation of criminals, which considers convicts as irrecoverable scamps. Unless we ourselves have hope, we are incapable of inspiring hope in our prisoners, and it is the exhilaration of hopefulness that characterizes this initiation and progress of genuine reformative progress.

There is a sense in which nothing that lives is incapable of betterment, and so, strictly speaking, there are no incorrigible criminals. If it is possible to grasp the thought and cherish it, we should endeavor to discover in the very worst characters some spark of humanity that unites us all in ties of relationship, some secret soul chamber where superhuman influences may find lodgment, and so, with good leaven, pervade the whole man. At least we may find in our sphere a field for most fascinating scientific research and experiment.

I record it as my conviction, after nearly a lifetime spent with and for criminals, that, alike for all, corrigible and incorrigible, the aim to accomplish reformations is the true one. It most surely supplies all possible repression upon the criminal classes in society, it best determines the really incorrigible criminal, and leads up to the wisest system of prison treatment for them when they are discovered and separated from those who are corrigible. And the aim of reformations is absolutely essential to any good degree of public protection from crimes through the reformation of criminals.

VARIOUS REPORTERS ON INCORRIGIBILITY.

There were several other reports submitted on the sixth question of the second section, and among them one by Mr. Georges Dubois, advocate of the court of appeals of Paris, former magistrate, and a member of the council of direction of the Société Générale des Prisons. He closes by saying:

We sum up this report by formulating the following conclusions:

1. Experience demonstrates that a certain number of delinquents and habitual criminals must be considered as incorrigible, in the common acceptation of the word, and treated as such by penal law.

2. The principal criterion by which incorrigibility can be recognized consists in the persistent repetition of the same offenses which are inspired by the same moral causes.

3. The same treatment can not be adapted to simple habitual delinquents, whose perseverance in evil is caused by a distaste for labor and by a lack of moral energy, and to professional criminals who are deprived of moral sense and who are voluntarily rebellious against society.

4. It would be expedient to commit the first class, after the expiration of their sentences, to workhouses of a repressive character, and banish the second class for life to a colony distant from the metropolis, after they have undergone cellular imprisonment for their recent crime, where they will be subject to hard labor with a rigorous discipline. The countries which do not have colonial possessions could maintain incorrigible criminals after the expiration of their imprisonment by life detention under a régime especially severe with the same obligatory labor.

In this writer we meet with an advocate of transportation, a Frenchman whose country for many years has exiled criminals and continues to do so to this day. So much has been said of the Russian system that it is possible the world may have forgotten that other nations also send convicts into exile. As the writer touches on some of the principal arguments in favor of transportation, it may be interesting to note the reasons he gives for upholding it. In the course of his paper he says:

Finally let us reflect that the penalty of transportation, which prevails in Finland, France, Portugal, and in Russia, and which was only abandoned by England because of the powerful opposition of the colonies where it was enforced, has received to a certain extent the sanction of experience, and is not a new institution and without intimate relations with prison work. The disastrous results of transportation to Van Diemen's land have been explained by the very defective conditions in which it was organized and by the scandalous abuses arising under it. But the experience of Australia presented all the advantages that the metropolis and, in the mean time, the colony itself could draw from transportation wisely applied. The parliamentary commission of 1856, discarding the conclusions of the commission of 1838 which had condemned transportation, concluded as follows:

"The punishment of transportation is more effectual and deterrent, better adapted to the ultimate reformation of convicts, and more beneficial to the country than any other secondary punishment for serious crimes which has yet been tried." The adversaries of transportation have claimed that England discontinued this punishment by reason of its inconveniences and intrinsic dangers. At the Congress of Stockholm, Dr. Mouat and Sir George Arney, delegate from New Zealand, have done justice to this historical fiction by recalling, with interesting details, that transportation to Australia had succeeded in a penal point of view; that the British Government was strongly attached to it and persisted in it until the opposition of the colony finally triumphed. Dr. Mouat added that in the Indies, to his personal knowledge, transportation had been an entire success.

Transportation was introduced in the French penal code about a century ago, September 25, 1791, and applied to vagrants by the law of 24th vendémiaire, year 2, overrating in this order of ideas, as in many others, reforms to the point of imperiling success.

When the inquiry into prison management was ordered, in 1872, by the National Assembly, the court of appeals and all appellant courts with one exception approved the principle of transportation of recidivists (old offenders) and presented no differences of opinion upon the conditions of its application. In 1878 the commissioner of the superior council of prisons presented also the same views.

It is true that transportation cannot be of universal application, and that the countries which do not have any colony will find it impossible to have recourse to it. This consideration would not hold with a people who have possessions beyond the sea, more or less distant. We have already remarked that under the influence of the breath of colonial expansion which moves across Europe, the number of nations without colonial establishments is constantly diminishing. Germany and Italy, for example, who could rank in this class in the Cōngress of Stockholm, have entered the general movement. And since we have alluded to Italy, let us remember that that country has established a kind of transpórtation to a short distance in creating penitentiaries in the neighboring island of Sicily. This transportation to islands, whence flight is difficult, and in which the condemned find themselves distant from the theater of their crimes, appears to us to realize, in default of distant colonies, the best treatment to inflict on incorrigible criminals.

We see how few are the nations which are prevented from their geographical position, as Switzerland and the Balkan States, from having recourse to transportation, or at least from the analogous transportation practiced in Italy. For these nations imprisonment for life is the only expedient to employ against incorrigible criminals. But it is understood that this imprisonment for life can only be undergone in part under the form of separate confinement. In effect, the duration of cellular detention is necessarily limited by the laws of humanity to a few years.

The maximum of ten years, adopted in Belgium, has never been surpassed and exceeds considerably the average duration of imprisonment in the other countries of Europe.

The dangers of an isolation as prolonged as that in Belgium, in the United States, and elsewhere reacts against the principles of the cellular system. It is thus that partisans, to the utmost, succeed in compromising success by developing the best institutions without discernment and without limit.

It would be necessary then that, after a probation in a prison cell, the incorrigible should be (in the absence of transportation) submitted to imprisonment in common for the rest of his life, at least to a conditional liberation which, his incorrigibility being conceded, could only take place under exceptional circumstances. And it is unnecessary to insist upon the danger to material and moral order presented by the massing of the worst malefactors in prisons in common.

Therefore transportation, which has at least the advantage of purging the soil of the metropolis and of removing convicts from the scene in which by their depravity they in turn deprave others, it appears to us should be preferred by every people who are possessed of colonies. We recommend, at least for those who would place incorrigibles where they could not injure others and have no other resource but imprisonment for life, to place them in special seclusion."

This is the exile system from the French standpoint. While writing this report the daily papers in the United States give an instance of the pardon of a criminal, by a Governor, on condition that the criminal would leave the State and never return. This kind of exile has been occasionally practiced in the United States. It has no existence in law, but grows out of the discretion given the Governor of the State to impose conditions he deems proper.

Mr. G. Alongi, director of the penitentiary of Favignana (Trapani), had a report on the sixth question of the second section and closes with the following:

But public opinion inspired by philanthropy is stronger than the law of selection, which convinces us that in the struggle for existence the weak and the savage (among whom it is necessary to place criminals) should be suppressed. Several codes, it is true, yet retain the death penalty, but its execution becomes more and more rare,

and Italy, which for 15 years has not executed a capital sentence, has lately abolished this penalty in compliance with public opinion. In the mean time it is necessary to replace the death penalty by another, and as it is impossible to find a full equivalent for death, it is necessary to choose and adopt one less severe. England and France have adopted transportation for life to colonies beyond the sea, but competent gentlemen have judged it to be inefficient and too expensive, and the general tendency has been to abolish this measure.

What, then, should we be satisfied with? We reply: with life imprisonment, cellular and forced labor; there is no other remedy. We kill dangerous animals, we confine furious lunatics, and it is necessary, then, that we imprison as well the criminal who, relapsing without cessation, shows himself to be incorrigible. Every convict should labor, and there is no want of useful work to do—such as lands to clear and cultivate. Our politicians are very compassionate concerning the mortality which prevails in prison colonies, but by an incredible inconsistency they give no heed to thousands of honest peasants who daily sacrifice their lives and whose sons increase the army of criminals. Theoretical economists fear that prison work applied on a vast scale will be disastrous to free labor; that it would be, perchance, more just and more economical to support and lodge gratuitously the criminals, while respectable people pay the expenses. I leave to others more competent than myself the task of refuting the arguments advanced against the work of prisoners. I affirm, however, that if the contrary exists, it is due to the small remuneration received for prison labor. Pay this labor the average price current for free labor, and the dangers feared will disappear. The compensation of the prisoners should be divided into three parts: One for their own support, the second for the education of their children, who are too often abandoned and who go to make up the prison population, towards which their innate tendencies carry them; and the third should be used to indemnify the victims of their crimes, who are often drawn to evil by poverty and by the impossibility of obtaining the indemnity which they have so much right to.

If I should set forth the moral and economic results of the proposed organizations of prison labor, I should exceed the limits assigned this report. It is certain that this system would directly prevent the relapse of criminals, and indirectly it would diminish their number, by contributing to a part of the expenses for the education of the many abandoned children, who to-day increase in the putrid fermentation of the streets and houses of the poor, where they learn prematurely those things it would be better they should always remain ignorant of.

Absolute isolation, then positive labor and better compensation, using of wages as we have said—this way and not otherwise will be found the true correction of incorrigibles and the diminution of crime and criminals and the relief of the enormous and useless expenses of the State.

Not false pity, but isolation and labor; this will bring peace and wellbeing to all, criminals included.

Mr. F. Ammetzboek, director of the penetentiary of Vridslöselille, Denmark, treated this question. He has been for over two years assistant director of a prison having 500 convicts under the régime "in common," for ten years the director of a cellular prison with 500 convicts, and for eight years a member of the executive committee of the patronage society connected with the last-named prison. This writer does not admit that a prisoner of sound mind can be classed as incorrigible. He says:

I would not dare charge as incorrigible one of the 3,000 criminals who have been confided to my care. * * * During my career as a prison officer I have seen many criminals who offered, humanly speaking, characteristic signs of incorrigibility, who against every hope have reformed, and who now, and for a long time, have led respectable lives. * * * I believe that other prison and police officers, as well as philan-

throphists, can confirm the truth of my experience, and I hope that many will protest against the theory of incorrigibility and place in the balance their experience against purely abstract ideas.

The entire report is valuable, but only the conclusions can be inserted further. They are as follows:

1. That punishments of short duration should be abolished, or at least their application should be limited to fewer cases.
2. That the punishment of hard labor should be inflicted for one year at least, and that reduction for good behavior in the cell should be abolished.
3. That the punishment for relapse should be lengthened progressively and each time be more severe.
4. That the courts should constantly obtain from prisons information relative to relapses, a means which assumes such intelligent information from prison officers and employés that the courts can have confidence in their estimate.
5. That the work of patronage, the indispensable supplement of the end of the punishment, should be greatly encouraged by the state and individuals.

There were reports on question 6, section 2, by Mr. Sichart, director of the prison of Ludwigsburg, Wurtemburg; Prof. D. Gramantieri, advocate, in Urbino, Italy; M. S. Wahovitch, advocate of the court of appeals of Odessa, Russia; Mr. S. M. Latyschew, writer in the department of the minister of justice in St. Petersburg; Mr. Spasowicz, doctor of laws and advocate in St. Petersburg; and Mme. Concepcion Arenal, of Vigo, Spain. This last-named writer is one of the ablest and best known writers on all matters pertaining to penology that can be found in Europe. She has been an extensive contributor to the various international congressess, and her words are considered as high authority. The state of her health has not allowed her to attend the congresses. Her report on this subject covers 60 octavo pages and is treated in a masterly way. She writes under the following heads:

1. What do we understand by incorrigible?
2. Is incorrigible the same as not reformed?
3. By what rule can we declare a prisoner incorrigible?
4. Is there any relation between the character of the offense and the fact that the same person often repeats it?
5. Are there any incorrigibles? are they a peril to society?
6. Is there any social complicity in relapse?
7. What can be done with incorrigibles?

THE CONTRACT SYSTEM.

The question of contract labor, which came up under the first question of the second section, was one of the most practical and interesting which was discussed in the St. Petersburg Congress. This question is by no means settled in the United States. The experience of New York, referred to in this report, in changing from one system to another and then back again, shows the unsettled condition of opinion regarding this subject. The principal reason given in this country in favor of the contract system is, that it is more economical for the state. That argument has had great weight and has often determined the matter with

legislators in favor of the contract system. The question of the reformation of prisoners has always had a secondary consideration. It is doubtful whether there has been sufficient effort on the part of the state to operate its own prison labor in a first-class business manner sufficiently to determine whether the state can utilize the labor without loss. By reference to the St. Petersburg resolutions it will be found that the conclusions on this question are somewhat equivocal, yet favor most the anti-contract system. The individual members of the congress, however, spoke strongly against the contract system, and their views may usually be taken as the more correct exponent of the sentiment of the congress.

The following views were expressed:

Mr. Illing, superior privy councilor of the minister of the interior of the Kingdom of Prussia, presented the following views:

In discussing the question in order to decide to what system preference should be given, we should first ask, what is the object of work in prisons? We can not judge of the organization of work without knowing what we wish to obtain in requiring prisoners to labor. Criminalists of all countries agree upon this point, that it is necessary to unite forced labor with the punishment for certain crimes and misdemeanors. But, if labor becomes thus an integral part of the punishment, it also at the same time furnishes the most efficacious means for its execution. Without work it would be impossible to maintain order and discipline in prisons. Without labor the physical and mental health of the prisoners would suffer for the want of employment. Idleness is incompatible with the health of the mind and the body, and the convict has the right to work as he has the right to his support. Idleness is the beginning of all evil in the prison as it is in free life, and the habit of regular work marks the first step in the way of regeneration. John Howard, the reformer of the English prison system, inaugurated his great work by organizing labor in prisons, putting in practice his rule: "Make men diligent and they will be honest." The Abbe Lamennais has said, "When God wished that man should work he concealed a treasure in labor."

Viscount d'Haussonville said in his work on Prisons: "Labor in prisons should have a double end, to give to the punishment a moral and reformatory character, and to facilitate the return of the prisoner to respectable life by providing for him at the time of his discharge resources and means to earn a living. * * * The application of penal law should not become a fiscal measure. Therefore the fiscal consideration should yield when in the organization of prison work it would conflict with prison discipline and when it would be opposed to the end of punishment. * * * In abandoning prison labor to the contractors, with full power to organize it at their will, the administration relinquishes the most efficient means for exercising a salutary influence on the prisoners and puts them in the hands of persons who work them to get the highest gain possible, who have no interest in the reformation of the convicts except as it affects pecuniary results and who are indifferent to the moral end of punishment. The dangers of such a system are increased by the fact that the foremen in the employment of the contractors acquire, as experience proves, an influence in the prison, which unfortunately is abused to satisfy the bad tendencies of the prisoners and to favor their illicit relations. Where the contract system is introduced the officer in charge of the establishment for the State has only one mission, that of preventing the prisoners from committing any excess and to prevent the labor organized by the contractor from being disturbed. It is evident that with such a system there could be no question as to the moral influence exercised by the officers on the prisoners. The prison becomes a private workshop in which public employés

assist the contractor in the execution of industrial labors without being able to occupy the prisoners in conformity to their individual qualifications, to the character and gravity of their crime, as should be done if we do not wish to renounce all the regenerating influence of labor." The French Société Générale des Prisons, which by its efforts and labors has acquired an unquestionable position on all questions touching prison affairs, has very ably depicted the consequences of a general contract system. In response to the questions of the Congress of Rome of 1885 it responded as follows on this question: "We regret we have to testify that under the régime of the contract system the moral side of prison work is entirely sacrificed. The central prisons are not, to speak truly, prison establishments, but vast manufactories in which manufacturers seek to draw the greatest profit from the labor they purchase from the state. The prisoner, the involuntary organ of this handiwork, is only considered as a productive force. The director gives way to the contractor. It is the contractor who disposes of the time of the prisoners, who provides for their wants, and who regulates all the details of their life. Armed with his specifications, he can oppose every modification of interior regulations which he judges contrary to his interest. Should the administration attempt to give the prisoners, outside of the hours provided in the regulations, some conference, some instruction, some exercise, even, required by their health, the contractor protests and claims the time which is his due. In this system public authority continues to give way to speculation. It abdicates to mercantile hands the high mission of moral and social preservation with which it is invested, and which consists not only in detaining criminals but in defending them against corruption and relapse." * * *

The contract system is an abuse. We can not otherwise qualify a system under which public authority according to the correct expression of the Société Générale des Prisons abdicates its high mission to the hands of speculators, but the lease system (of certain Southern States) goes farther yet in treating criminals as slaves and as beasts of burden. It is difficult to comprehend how such a scandal can continue to exist in the country of our venerated Dr. Wines, in the country which was the first to proclaim the rights of man. A journal, the Century for January, 1884, page 584, in speaking of the lease system, truly says: "It is an insult to the intelligence and humanity of an enlightened community."

Mr. Illing proceeded at considerable length to give his reasons for and against the contract system, in the course of which he quotes Col. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts, and Z. R. Brockway, esq., of New York, two of the most eminent penologists of this country, whose addresses and writings oppose the contract system. The language of Colonel Sanborn is:

In the great prisons the contract system is perhaps indispensable, but in prisons of less than 300 prisoners one can dispense with it, and Mr. Brockway administers without contract a prison of 400 convicts. To be at the head of the management of a prison and to direct its industries, it is necessary to have a man endowed with capacity for business, and it is for lack of this capacity that administrations rarely succeed. On one side the contract system often introduces in prisons a moral and financial corruption, impedes discipline, and demoralizes the prisoner. For this reason it should be abolished wherever it would be possible. But in prisons where there are 500 or more it is probable that the system can not be changed.

Mr. Illing says that the system he would recommend conforms mainly to that established in Belgium by the law of April 5, 1887, which is outlined as follows:

ART. 2. The prisoners shall be principally employed on work for the state.

ART. 3. The central administration will order each year the list of articles of which the manufacturing will be reserved to the prisons by the different ministerial departments and will distribute the orders between the several departments.

ART. 4. If the state work does not occupy all the time of the prisoners, the directors should endeavor to utilize the balance of the time for the benefit of free industry.

ART. 5. The directors should bring out the competition of contractors.

ART. 6. Prison labor should not be leased except to contractors or manufacturers.

The entire remarks of Mr. Illing are interesting, but only the above can be given, with his conclusions, which are as follows:

1. Work in prisons should be employed as much as possible to manufacture articles for the use of the prisons and for the state in general.

2. Work for the state affords the administration of prisons great latitude to organize and regulate the work as the object of punishment requires. But the system is only preferable when there is a sufficient number of intelligent employés who will not prejudice the interests of workmen and when it operates only with a limited number of prisoners.

3. When the number of prisoners in a prison exceeds 200, the contract system can not be dispensed with.

4. The general contract system is in contradiction to the exigencies and the theory of prison management. Public authority, in giving to contractors the right to organize, at their will, the labor in prisons, abandons the execution of the punishment and deprives itself of the most efficient means for exercising a salutary influence on the prisoners. It should then in every case reserve to itself the right to regulate the work in general and to determine what should be the occupation of each prisoner.

5. In order to avoid, as much as possible, the disadvantages of competition we would recommend, where the contract system prevails, to lease labor only at public auction, and if administration work is pursued, not to authorize the management of the prison either to manufacture on order articles made in the little industries of persons living near the prison, nor to have a place for sale at retail of the articles manufactured in the prison.

The argument and conclusions of Mr. Illing are to the effect that contract labor should prevail in prisons having over 200 inmates. But this seems founded on the theory that the director or warden could not manage a greater number with his other duties. Would not that depend on the capacity of the warden? One soldier has the capacity to be a captain only and can manage only a company, while another can as well guide the movements not only of regiments, but of armies. And then this may raise another and very important query, whether a prison conducting administration labor should not have a competent business manager, who, while working in harmony with the warden, should have exclusive charge of the business management, as do certain officers in the German universities.

Without producing the arguments, the conclusions of several members of the congress will be given on this subject. Mr. Schimanovsky, a member of the court of appeals of Odessa, concludes as follows:

1. The labor should conform to local conditions, and should consider the population of the prison.

2. In the first place common or ordinary work should be considered; that is to say, that work which requires no special knowledge and which can employ the greatest

number of prisoners. If it is necessary to have in the prison some industry, such as making matches, it must be operated in the interest of the prison.

3. The compensation for labor after deducting the cost of material should go entirely to the prisoner who has done the work.

4. The trades of the shoemaker, carpenter, blacksmith, and locksmith should answer for the needs of the prison.

5. The system of administration work should be admitted. The persons to whom the direction of the work is confided should receive a percentage of the net products.

6. Competition would be avoided when the prisoners exercise the same trade as free laborers if the object sought is only to satisfy the wants of the prison, and if the articles manufactured are sold only at the current prices of free labor.

7. The work of women should be confined to domestic limits. Well-organized garden or dairy work could be successfully carried on by female prisoners.

The reader should have in mind that, however learned or experienced in penology the gentlemen here cited may be, their opinions are only individual, and that the opinions of European writers differ on these questions as much as do those of Americans. And here is where the labors of the prison congresses are of special value, in enabling all to compare the various ideas on the important subjects considered and, in that way, to profit by the sayings and experiences of others. The following views come with a certain weight of authority from the Russian standpoint as they are sanctioned by the commission of the Society of Jurisprudence of St. Petersburg, the reporter being Mr. Ponomarew, an attaché of the Russian Senate. The report concluded as follows:

Based on what precedes, the commission of the Society of Jurisprudence of St. Petersburg makes the following declarations:

1. The choice between contract and administration labor should be determined first in favor of the system which would best secure labor for the prisoners.

2. This demand being equally satisfied by either system, preference should be given to administration labor, the latter facilitating most the accomplishment of the end sought by imprisonment.

3. Considerations of equity and policy favor the development in prisons of labor at the command of the State destined to provide for the wants of the administration.

Mr. Bela Atzel, director of the penitentiary of Nagy Enyed, Hungary, speaks as follows on this question:

Before beginning the discussion of this question, I consider it my duty to indicate the principles on which prison labor should be regulated:

1. Labor should accord with penal law and the prison system.

2. It should not be in contravention of the regulations, the security and the discipline of the establishment.

3. It should not be prejudicial to the health of the prisoners and, so far as possible, it should be proportioned to each individual.

4. Labor should have, as much as possible, an educational character, and a kind of work should be selected which would aid discharged convicts to support themselves.

5. The labor should be of a nature to secure certain profits.

6. Labor in prisons should be of a kind that would not come into injurious competition with free labor.

If we observe the principles set forth from a practical view, we find that each system of work, whichever it is, will meet with difficulties in one or the other direction. * * * In prison, the labor of the convicts can be employed after one of the following systems:

(1) The sytem of work for the state, when the establishment executes the work on its own account and under the direction of its officers.

(2) The system known as the piece-price plan, or accord system. This system holds a position between the state and contract systems, and consists in this: that the establishment produces, under the direction of its officers, industrial articles or work for manufacturers or merchants, who furnish the materials and often the tools. These patrons either pay for the labor of each prisoner or for each article delivered. But these patrons—and this is extremely important—have no right to enter the establishment or into the workshops, so that they could come in contact with the prisoners; that is, they could communicate only with the director. This system is not applied exclusively in any establishment, and is usually combined with the state system.

(3) The contract system, in which the labor of the prisoner is let to a contractor, who works him for his benefit.

The contract system has three forms. According to the first, the prisoners are delivered to a contractor, who takes charge of nearly all the execution of the punishment. He employs the officers and pays the expenses of their support, and he furnishes the buildings for detention. In return, the contractor can work the prisoners at his will. According to circumstances, the contractor receives from the state an indemnity per head, or he is to pay a certain sum to the state; or, finally, the state pays nothing to the contractor, or the contractor to the state.

This kind of contract labor prevails only in North America, where the contractor sublets the prisoners to undercontractors who employ them in the construction of railroads, in mines, or in other enterprises. The prisoners are transported where the subcontractor wants them. They are there lodged in miserable barracks, and are poorly fed, so that, to speak truly, one-tenth die by sickness and ill-treatment. It goes without saying that in this state of things discipline can not be maintained except by the whip and by arms. [This system is the chain-gang lease system in the Southern States.]

In a pecuniary point of view this kind of contract labor is the least expensive to the state, and the execution of the punishment costs the state nothing, or nearly so. However, as in the execution of the sentence and for the work of the prisoners there never should be employed any system against which objection can be made in view of moral or penal law, and as the system presented above, apart from its other faults, is absolutely immoral, it can not be considered as a system applicable to the prison establishment of a civilized state.

The second form of contract labor practiced is the employment of prisoners in a state prison, under the supervison of officers named by the state, who undertake to provide for all the wants of the establishment, and in the meantime hire out the labor of the convicts. But the conditions for supplies as well as for working the prisoners are stipulated in the contract. This system is in vogue in France and the United States.

The third kind of contract work consists in this, that the labor of convicts in state establishments is hired to one or several contractors, and it is stipulated in the contract what trade the contractor should follow and how the state should be paid, by the head or by the day. The contractor must furnish the materials and the tools and designate a foreman for the organization of the work and the direction of affairs. The establishment should furnish only the shops and the workmen. In the s ate system, to the director is reserved the right to designate the workmen and to replace them. * * * This form of contract labor is mainly applied in Prussia and in Hungary, in connection with state labor. It is also practiced in Saxony, Brunswick, Hamburg, and Austria.

Mr. Atzel then goes on to give his views at length of these systems and says farther:

The state system is employed in Bavaria, Baden, Italy, England, Sweden and Norway, Belgium, Switzerland, Holland, Würtemberg, Hungary, and Croatia. At the same time it should be remarked that in Holland, Würtemberg, and Hungary they employ at the side of the state system the contract system also.

In conclusion he says of the state system:

1. It can accommodate itself to all systems of detention, for it can be applied to the cellular systems as well as to prisons in common and progressive.

2. It will not be found in collision with the regulations for safety and discipline. The prison direction can form a plan of labor in conformity with the regulations. It can also exercise the supervision and control which the best conditions of safety and discipline require.

3. To the directors is given the means and appliances for vigorous bygienic measures, suppressing such work as is injurious to health, and introducing no industry that is prejudicial in a hygienic point of view.

4. The prison directors are allowed to choose such industries as will offer resources to prisoners at their discharge. They can institute others at discretion, and consequently employ prisoners in a manner that accords with their strength, health, and aptitude. Finally, the directors can introduce only those industries that are not in operation in the locality of the prison by small manufacturers.

This question was also discussed at length by Mr. Paul Guéorguiewski, professor of the University of St. Petersburg, Mr. F. Chickerio, director of the penitentiary of Lugano, Switzerland, Baron Francois de Renzis, deputy of the Italian Parliament, and Mr. Etienne de Balkay, director of the prison at Sopron, Hungary.

M. HERBETTE ON CONTRACT LABOR.

Among those who presented reports on the question of contract or state labor was M. Herbette, the distinguished chief of the French prison administration. He recognized that the question presented different aspects in different countries, which rendered the question a difficult one to answer. In the mean time he believed that certain conclusions could be reached. The necessity of labor for prisoners appeared to him one of these, the want of work some times being the cause of revolt in prison. But this labor must be regulated; it should not be useless nor unproductive, nor should it lower the prisoner by giving him an occupation which would degrade him. The work should accord with the interest of society in serving to reform the prisoner. In this respect, if government labor will best secure this end, it is necessary to employ it; but if it will not answer, some other means must be tried. The government system of labor is always difficult, because it requires numerous employés. The contract system offers advantages when it is well regulated. The condition necessary to success in the government system is to have profitable customers; but it is difficult for the state, which may deceive itself as to the profits of its operations. The system of government labor, well organized, offers the best facilities for the control of labor.

We should examine, then, the conditions for managing state labor, which requires the greatest precaution. On the other hand, it is necessary to remember that the labor of prisons should not be for the purpose of public profit. The best way is to apply the work as much as possible to the use of the state itself, and manage it so that all orders will be utilized by the state. The conclusions reached by M. Herbette are as follows:

1. Useful, and as far as possible productive, labor being necessary for prisoners in some penitentiary régime to which they are submitted, it is proper in each country to inquire, considering the individual case, how labor can be practically furnished to respond to the regulative and diverse necessities of penitentiary life.

2. Labor being the principal feature of prison life, should remain subordinate in its organization and in its operations to public authority, which alone can secure the execution of the penal laws. It should not allow the abandonment of prisoners to private interests.

3. In a general manner the system of state labor seems better to facilitate the control of every department of prison management, as well as the work to be accomplished. But, on account of the difficulties which the organization of public labor presents, it can be conceived how administrations can resort to contractors or private industries, provided that utilization of institution labor does not give the contractor control of the person and life of the prisoner.

4. In the organization of prison work, and especially in the system of state labor, it is desirable that the advantages of prison hand labor should be reserved to the state, and that the state should consequently, in as great a measure as possible, be both producer and consumer of the objects manufactured by prison labor.

As to the conclusions relative to the second question, M. Herbette formulates them as follows:

1. That hand labor should be utilized as far as possible, and without doing wrong to the necessities of prison labor, to the wants of the prisoners, and to the operations of the institution.

2. That the advantages which may result from this hand labor should be reserved as far as possible to the service of the state, and should not be for the benefit of private contractors.

3. That the naming of the effective force of each industry in any place, the choice, the variety, and the supplying of the industries, the determination of the salaries, and prices of work should combine so as to constitute neither protection, privilege, nor abusive power capable of depressing corresponding free industries.

4. That public authority should always preserve, in some mode of organizing work, whatever it be, the mode for guarding against all abusive combinations, without reducing the prisoners to idleness and without abandoning them to the control or power of contractors.

THIRD SECTION—PREVENTION.

MR. RANDALL ON PREVENTION.

There were only two American reports at the St. Petersburg Congress, one by Mr. Z. R. Brockway, the able and distinguished superintendent of the New York State Reformatory, which paper will be found in the prison section of this report, and another paper in the preventive

section, by Mr. C. D. Randall, of Michigan, on the third question of the third section. Incidentally his paper also answers in some respects the seventh question of the first section. Mr. Randall's paper is as follows:

I have presented in detail to the International Prison Congress of Stockholm and of Rome the system adopted by the State of Michigan for the protection and supervision of dependent children, a system which consists in the temporary maintenance in a public school, where they are educated, and then placed in respectable families during their minority. I have treated the same subject in the Bulletin de la Société Générale des Prisons. The different papers which I have published have drawn European attention to this school. Senator Roussel, of France, writes me: "Your interesting communications to ancient Europe, and especially those you have made to my country through the Société Générale des Prisons, have too vividly struck my attention to allow me to neglect the duty I have imposed on myself to present to the French Parliament an account of the admirable work for which the State of Michigan is indebted to you."

In this remarkable report, presented in 1872 by Senator Roussel to the French Senate, will be found an extended description of the State Public School of Michigan and a copy of the laws under which it operates. The Bulletin de la Société Générale des Prisons in the year 1878 published a discourse which M. Drouyn de Lhuys, who was minister of Louis Philippe, delivered before the Institute of France, approving highly the system of this institution, placing the State of Michigan in advance of Europe in the care and education of dependent children. This institution has been appreciated in a very favorable manner at home and abroad by most eminent economists, and it is doubtful whether any similar school has ever met with such general approval. The most complete account of its plan and operations will be found in a report presented by me to the Paris Exposition of 1889, which comprises three volumes, which have been presented to the library of the Société Générale des Prisons. On this report the institution was awarded a gold medal. From these different sources of information the reader will learn that in 1871 the State of Michigan, which then had existed only about 40 years, took a new departure in social science, assuming the right and duty to protect, assist, and educate the dependent children, receiving them temporarily in an educational establishment and then placing them as soon as possible in respectable families during minority, in accordance with written contracts guaranteeing to the children a good education and treatment as members of the family where placed. This school has no connection with the penal or reformatory system of the State. Poverty alone admits the children. The law of the State provides for a complete separation of the dependent from delinquent children. Formerly they were brought up together by public or private charity. The child is placed in a family, in which, according to the contract, he is to be treated as one of the family, and sent to the public school. He is not in the position of a domestic, and he has every opportunity to become in time a useful, independent, and respected citizen. During his minority he is the object of active supervision by county agents, one in each county and by a State agent from the school, whose mission is to secure the faithful performance of the contract. It is not a boarding-out system. There is no compensation for their support. This institution receives all the dependent children of the State between 2 and 12 years of age who are healthy in body and mind. At the same time, those who have lost a limb are not excluded. Such children have been taught telegraphy, and some are now receiving $100 per month. Up to the present time 2,900 children have been received, and when the prison congress meets the number will be probably 3,000. The number of these children who have had the beneficial influence of this school and the homes where placed is great, and many are already respectable and self-supporting. The advantages this system presents for the children of the poor is evident, and it is also evident that its influence has reduced the number of dependent children in the State. The result would be more certain if

the neighboring States should adopt this system, for there are no large rivers or high chains of mountains to separate the States and only a geographical line to indicate the boundary over which the dependent and delinquent classes may pass and repass. The inhabitants of our country speak the same language, they are part of the same people, under the same general government, and there is more or less a constant movement of the people. The dependents and criminals of one State can migrate to another, and the Eastern States send their dependent children west and place them in families, often without proper discrimination, without a written contract, and without any subsequent supervision. The result is that many of these children desert their new homes, and sooner or later are found in the county poorhouses, in reform schools, or in prisons. In 1887 the State of Michigan enacted a law, according to which the placing of children in families can not take place without a written contract, and then only in families which shall be approved in the same manner as homes are approved for the children of the State Public School. This law regulates the placing of all children, and while it does not forbid their emigration, it indirectly secures that result by requiring that they shall be placed in carefully selected homes and have supervision. The theory of the law is that each State should provide for its own dependents. Without doubt this new measure will greatly contribute to reduce the number of dependent children in Michigan. The law is an amendment to the Michigan statute "for the protection of children."

In the States of New York and California the dependent children are brought up in sectarian asylums at public expense, which tends to increase pauperism. In the State of Ohio are establishments called "district homes," and others called county "infirmaries," in which such children are received. In Indiana and in most of the other States these children are mainly cared for in the county poorhouses. One can get an idea of the results of these different systems by consulting the following figures drawn from the official report of 1887:

State.	Estimated population.	Number of dependent children.	Rate to population.	Annual cost in 1887.
New York	5,500,000	20,295	1 to 263	$2,050,000
Ohio	3,500,000	3,573	1 to 1,000	312,354
California	1,000,000	3,600	1 to 250	231,215
Michigan	2,000,000	200	1 to 10,000	35,000

In 1889 the board of control of the State Public School of Michigan reduced the anticipated expenses for 1889 and 1890 and applied to the legislature for only $33,000 for annual current expenses.

The influence of this school in Michigan has resulted in the enactment of the law "for the protection of children," the law for "the treatment of dependent children in the University Hospital," and the law establishing a county agency for dependent and delinquent children. It has also influenced the establishment of similar institutions in the States of Rhode Island, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. It has modified ideas which have prevailed in social science and corrected those which existed relative to dependent children.

Inquiries are so often made regarding this school it is considered advisable to explain the system thus briefly to those who are interested in unfortunate children. This institution represents the best system for decreasing the number of dependent children and to prevent their illtreatment. But I can not in this report speak farther of this institution, and refer again to the sources of information already indicated.

SOME CAUSES LEADING TO ILLTREATMENT OF CHILDREN.

Why enact laws to protect children from illtreatment by their parents? Are not children sufficiently protected by the love of their parents—by natural affection? Yes, if the affections are developed in a normal manner. Unfortunately, powerful in-

fluences weaken and destroy the affections, and among these and the most pernicious is intemperance. By it, cruelty to children begins with the very origin of life, when the maladies of the parents are given as a fearful legacy to the children. This terrible heritage for innocent children entails also poverty, ignorance, vice, filth, misery, hunger, bad company, illtreatment, and crime. Intemperance causes pauperism and crime, and where it reigns purity is little known and the child is initiated into evil. Brought up under such conditions, it would be surprising if he escaped a life of misery and crime. Against such cruelty the child can not protect itself. The State alone can come to his aid and the first act should be to protect the child from the evil effects of intemperance. Harper's Weekly correctly said:

"The sale of alcoholic liquors is the mortal enemy of civilized society, the prolific author of crime and pauperism, and the destroyer of domestic happiness, and its severe regulation and even its suppression by local option is a question of the highest importance."

MICHIGAN LAWS RELATIVE TO ILLTREATED CHILDREN.

Before the year 1889 there was no law in Michigan by which children, illtreated by their parents, could be fully protected. The parent who had brutally abused his child could, for a bodily injury, be arrested and punished, but the child would remain in his possession. When the injury was a moral one, when the child was depraved by the parents, when bad education put it in peril and on the way to the poorhouse or to the prison, there was no provision of the legislature to secure protection. The parents would continue to keep the children with them. This is the condition which now prevails in most of the States. The child who is morally abandoned, who is brutally treated by intemperate parents, who is raised in resorts dangerous to health and morals, and in the society of the criminal and vicious, is on his way to a charitable institution, to the reform school, or to the prison. It is urgent, then, to enact efficient laws for the protection of children who are found in such conditions. It is questionable whether any country has yet attained perfection in legislation for this purpose. The French project, which was cited above, and on which Senator Roussel presented a report so complete, is without doubt the best known and the best formulated to secure efficient protection for dependent or illtreated children. This project has been passed by the senate, but not by the house of deputies, where it has already undergone some modifications to reduce expenses to the state.

The principle placed at the head of this act is remarkable and well worthy of drawing attention to the high position in which the enactment of this law would place the French Republic. This principle is formulated in the following language:

"Every minor, not emancipated, of either sex, materially or morally abandoned or illtreated, is under the protection of public authority."

We find in this project a clear and logical definition of the various kinds of illtreatment which would justify official protection and the enumeration of the methods provided to assure it. The delay in the enactment of this law is to be regretted. The experience acquired by the vigorous enforcement of this act would enlighten public opinion upon methods for efficiently protecting children morally abandoned or illtreated. Under these circumstances Michigan has had from other countries few precedents to guide in legislative reforms for dependent and illtreated children. In some States there are laws, primitive enough, which in a certain measure protect children seriously illtreated, and in some cases permit their removal from their parents.

The courts generally interpret the laws in favor of the child. Formerly the theory and principles of the English common law always granted the guardianship of the child to the father. This, in practice, has not been sensibly modified, so that the forfeiture of parental authority is rarely pronounced by the courts. The project of the French law contains provisions relative to forfeiture and to restore the parental power when it is demonstrated that restitution will be for the best interest of the

child. The Michigan law of 1889 has borrowed some of these provisions and others are inspired by the French project, but the law does not extend as far as the other. There are some features which should be supplied by further legislation, when experience under this act shall show what is wanting. For example, this law does not provide for the restoration of parental control. The parent of sufficient means should be required to contribute to the expense of the education of the child.

But, notwithstanding these defects, it is doubtful whether there exists at present a more efficient law for the protection of illtreated children than that which was adopted by the State of Michigan in 1889. It is a part of the general law "for the protection of children," and begins with section 11 as follows:

"SEC. 11. Every child under sixteen years of age who is illtreated within the the meaning of this act by his father, mother, or guardian, is hereby declared to be under the protection of public authority and may be removed from such parent or guardian, as herein provided."

This section is followed by one which defines the illtreatment which should secure protection by the law. This protection is as complete as that secured by the law of any country. The writer does not know of any law as radical and at the same time so conservative. It limits the application of the remedy to the most serious cases. If a case of illtreatment be well established under this law it is doubtful whether any court or jury would hesitate an instant to declare the parental rights forfeited.

"SEC. 12. An illtreated child is hereby declared to be:

"First. One whose father, mother, or guardian shall habitually violate or permit such child to violate the provisions of sections one, two, five, and six of this act.

"Second. One whose father, mother, or guardian habitually causes or permits the health of such child to be injured or his life to be endangered by exposure, want, or other injury to his person, or causes or permits him to engage in any occupation that will be likely to endanger his health or life or to deprave his morals.

"Third. One whose father, mother, or guardian is an habitual drunkard or a person of notorious and scandalous conduct, or a reputed thief or a prostitute or one who habitually permits him to frequent public places for the purpose of begging or receiving alms, or to frequent the company of or consort with reputed thieves or prostitutes, with or without such father, mother, or guardian or by any other act, example, or by vicious training depraves the morals of such child."

In order to understand the full import of section 12 it is necessary to know the provisions of the first, second, fifth and sixth sections.

The first section forbids any one having custody of a child under 16 years of age to permit him to be employed as a rope-dancer, acrobat, beggar, or for an obscene, indecent, or immoral purpose, or to be exposed in any manner injurious to his health or dangerous to his life or morals.

The second section forbids the presence of such child in any place where intoxicating liquors are sold as a beverage, and in places of public amusement, such as dance houses, houses of prostitution, billiard saloons, and other places used for gambling purposes.

The fifth section forbids the employment of such child in the sale of obscene publications or of journals specially devoted to police reports.

The sixth section forbids the sale, in public places, in the presence of children of the publications mentioned in section 5.

After the definition of what constitutes an illtreated child come the provisions relative to the application of the law. As this law is not common, the provisions for its enforcement are given here in detail. Like the law relating to the State School at Coldwater, the jurisdiction of the disposition of illtreated children is in the probate court. The method of procedure is as follows:

"SEC. 13. Upon complaint made to the judge of probate of the proper county that any child has been illtreated in either manner stated in this act, he shall examine the complainant on oath and shall reduce the complaint to writing and cause the same

to be subscribed by the complainant, and if it shall appear that such offense has been committed the judge of probate shall issue a writ reciting the substance of the complaint and require the officer to whom it is directed to forthwith bring the child so alleged to have been illtreated and the parent or guardian charged with such illtreatment, before such judge of probate, to be dealt with according to law; and in the same writ he may require the officer to summon such witnesses as shall be named therein to appear and give evidence on trial.

"SEC. 14. That on the return of such writ with said child and the accused, the judge of probate shall proceed to hear and determine the cause. If it shall appear by the returns of the officer that the accused can not be found in the county, the hearing shall proceed without him. If the child shall be without counsel, it shall be the duty of the prosecuting attorney, on the request of the judge of probate, to appear in his behalf. If the accused or counsel for the child shall so request, the judge of probate shall order a jury to be summoned to find the facts in the case, and the judge of probate may in his discretion order a jury on his own motion. The jury so ordered shall be a jury of six persons and shall be summoned and empaneled in accordance with the law relating to juries in courts held by justices of the peace. If on the hearing the judge of probate shall find, or the verdict of the jury shall determine, that the allegations in the complaint are true, the judge of probate shall make and enter an order that the accused has forfeited his right to the custody of the child during minority and that the child be disposed of, in the discretion of the judge of probate, by one of the following methods:

"First. By the appointment of a respectable and suitable person of sufficient means as guardian of the custody and education of the child, who shall not be required to give bonds as such guardian, unless it shall appear that such child has personal or real property, who shall execute a written agreement in form approved by said judge of probate, and filed in said court, which shall provide for the treatment of the child as a member of the family, and for his proper support and education in the public schools. On complaint thereof made to the judge of probate that said guardian does not faithfully execute the terms of said contract, the said judge of probate shall cite said guardian to appear before him, and if it is then found that the allegations in the complaint are true the said judge of probate may cancel the contract and make a new order for the disposition of the child as herein provided;

"Second. By sending such child, if over two and under twelve years of age and sound in mind and body, to the State Public School at Coldwater, to be there received and to be subject to such disposition as the laws regulating that institution provide;

"Third. By delivering such child to the superintendents of the poor, if he is under two or over twelve years of age, or is not sound in mind and body, to be by them indentured to some suitable person, according to the provisions of sections eight and nine of this act, or to provide for him by the county as for other poor persons."

By the large discretionary power of the judge, the child can be placed first with a parent or friend. Whatever be the social condition of the child, the judge can, if he finds it best and convenient and if a favorable opportunity presents, place the child in social conditions analagous to those in which he was found. The parents may belong to the wealthy class and possess means which would permit them to contribute to place their child in a proper family and to insure him a good support and a good education. Where the child has no parents or friends, if he is of proper age and sound in mind and body, he may be sent to the State School. If not admissible to the school the child goes to the county as a public charge. * * *

It is not probable that there will be many cases under the new law. The condition of society in Michigan is certainly as good as in any other State of the Union or elsewhere, and cases of illtreatment will be rare. The law may at least have a deterrent influence. There will always be a natural hesitation to make a complaint against a neighbor, however grave his misconduct. But by means of this law the State extends to its citizens the means for efficiently protecting children in the graver

cases of illtreatment. No one should have occasion to say that there was no legal protection for illtreated children. It is a fact that in many counties this protection does not exist. The law is conservative, covering only the most serious cases. Its highest object is to protect children against those pernicious influences which, in all probability, would lead them to vice and crime. The vigorous execution of the law would have much to do in closing up the sources of poverty and crime.

When the provisions of this law are fully executed we will no longer see young children employed as acrobats or occupied in immoral or indecent pursuits. They will no longer be met in liquor saloons or in the streets buying or selling obscene literature, and these publications would disappear. Parents would no longer neglect the physical and moral condition of their children, and they would no longer be brought up in the society of habitual thieves, drunkards, prostitutes, and gamblers. The children would no longer be exposed to the worst temptations, become intemperate, have their health undermined, their character depraved, and their ruin consummated.

This law executed against all these evils would remove them. But no law can produce all the results desired. However well executed the law, there will yet be illtreated children. The law will be violated. All laws are, more or less. But such laws should be on our statute books. If they do not fully attain the desired end, they at least express the condition of our civilization and the sentiment of the public. By its legislation a people pronounces in favor of social order, morality, religion, and humanity. And this sentiment so publicly expressed has a powerful reflex influence on the individual and a constant and unquestionable influence on society. The State in enacting such laws acts only in the interest of the child who one day will be a citizen. It acts also in its own interest, for self-protection, desiring by such measures to reduce to a minimum its useless members and to increase to a maximum its useful and working citizens. The illtreatment, such as set forth in the law, would powerfully contribute to cause the child to be vicious and criminal. Then the State should protect the child from such influences in the interest of humanity and for the protection of the State. The statesman will always find that humanity and political economy are not in opposition, but that they are identical. Laws, customs, and habits which in their effect are inhuman, undermine and destroy society and the State. Whenever it can, the law should secure to children protection and education sufficient to make them respectable citizens. * * *

FORFEITURE OF PARENTAL RIGHTS.

When Blackstone published his celebrated treatise on the common law of England, the power of the father over the children, whether humanely exercised or not, was absolute. It declared then that the father had legal control of the child and that "the mother, as such, had no authority and was only entitled to consideration and respect." To the father only belonged this exclusive guardianship, even at the age when the infant received its nourishment from its mother. However virtuous the mother, or however vicious and corrupt was the father, even at that tender age the father could prevent the mother having access to it. This principle of the common law continued in force until 1839 when an act of Parliament repealed it. There will be found in Nicholas Nickleby, by Dickens, the story of the poor boy Smike who was placed by the courts in the control of even a pretended father. The important cases decided in the English courts will be found in 4 Dowl. P. C., 293; 6 Nev. and Man., 244; and 4 Adolphus and Ellis, 624. This principle was drawn from ancient precedents of other nations. In Persia, Greece, Gaul, and Egypt, and in ancient Rome, this absolute power of the father was sanctioned, even to the right to the life of the child. But as the humane ideas of modern civilization penetrated the spirit of legislative bodies and even into courts of justice, the principles of the ancient English common law relative to parental control disappeared.

The present English law authorizes the courts, in cases of habeas corpus, to withhold the child from both the complainant and defendant. If the child be 14 years of age, the court allows it to choose its own guardian and will approve the selection. If the child is not yet 14, the court will order that it be placed under proper guardianship. For precedents, see the cases of R. C. Deleval, 3 Burr., 1434; *Ex parte* Hopkins, 3 P. W., 151 n. "A"; R. C. Johnson, 1 Str., 579, and other cases there cited.

In the United States of America the courts have always been less than in England under the influence of ancient precedents, and the doctrine has always been less severe and more liberal towards children. The decisions are that in all cases of habeas corpus, and in all proceedings in chancery in which the custody of a minor is in question, it shall be the duty of the court to examine carefully all the facts and circumstances in the case, and then in its discretion order that the child shall be confided to some one best qualified for the guardianship. Above all, under this rule the court must consider the interest and welfare of the child and shall not permit technicalities of procedure or of parental rights to affect the decision. When the court finds that neither the complainant nor the defendant is a proper person to have the custody of the child, it must confide the guardianship to some other person to be charged with its support and education during minority. Decisions in support of this rule are numerous in the courts of the United States. The most interesting one is that of Donohue and others, New York, September term, 1876, in which the decision was delivered by Judge Westbrook, who expressed the views of the court as follows:

"The right of the State to care for its children has always, and with great propriety, been exercised under its laws, and whenever the welfare of the child has been demanded its courts have frequently interfered for the protection of children of tender years. It has again and again taken them from one parent and given them to the other, or has refused so to do; the good and welfare of the child being the object always in view."

The following opinion of the great American law writer, Kent is good authority:

"But the courts of justice may, in their sound discretion and when the morals or safety of the children greatly require it, withdraw the infants from the custody of the father and mother and place the care and custody of them elsewhere."

The case of Corrie *vs.* Corrie, 47 Michigan, 509, is very instructive and fully sustains the American rule. Judge Graves, in presenting the opinion of the court, says:

"In contests of this kind the opinion is now nearly universal that neither of the parties have any rights that can be allowed to seriously militate against the welfare of the child. The paramount consideration is, what is really demanded by its best interest? It is doing no violence to what is taught by judicial experience to assume that the disputing parties will be more alive to the satisfaction of their own feelings and interests than to the true end of the inquisition; while the innocent subject of the contention is utterly unable to speak or act for itself, and is in danger of being lost sight of in the strife for its possession. No other occasion can call more loudly for judicial vigilance in reaching for the exact truth, and in putting aside with an unsparing hand the mere technicalities of procedure."

A recent case was decided in the nineteenth circuit court of Michigan. The board of control of the State school at Coldwater had placed by indenture a child in a family. The contract had been canceled by the board on the ground that the family was not a proper one to retain the child. The family refused to surrender it and contested the proceedings by habeas corpus instituted by the board for the recovery of the child. Judge Judkins, in making an order for the surrender of the child and returning it to the institution, expressed himself as follows:

"In cases like this, the court will make a full inquiry into all the facts and circumstances and will then decide to which of the parties the child should be confided, and if it appears that neither should have it for the reason that neither is capable of taking care of it, the court will place it with neither and will confide it to some other person who is suitable to bring it up. The court will take into consideration the

interests of the child and will place it where it will be better cared for than with its father or mother. I have already had occasion to decide such cases. I remember a case of habeas corpus, about a year ago, where this question came up. The father demanded possession of the child from the mother. The father accused the mother of drunkenness, but the investigation showed that the father was a drunkard. In this case, I awarded the custody to neither, but after having carefully examined into all the circumstances, I rendered a decision according to the welfare of the child, rather than to satisfy the spite and caprice of the parents."

At the time when the English common law and the American practice were well established, and after the decision in the case of Corrie *vs.* Corrie by the supreme court of Michigan, a circuit court judge in that State rendered a decision in a habeas corpus case, in which the mother sought the recovery of her children who had been sent to the State school while she was an inmate of the Detroit House of Correction. He rendered a decision in favor of the complainant, and in deciding affirmed the old English rule saying the parents always had the right to the custody of the child whatever might be the law of the State. This remarkable decision was confirmed by the supreme court, not on the ground raised by the circuit judge, but for technical reasons, in effect setting aside in material respects their own decision in the case of Corrie *vs.* Corrie. The supreme court apparently overruled the decision in that case, in which Judge Graves said:

"No other occasion can call more loudly for judicial vigilance in reaching for the exact truth, and in putting aside with an unsparing hand mere technicalities of procedure."

To prevent the recurrence of similar decisions in the circuit courts, to assure uniformity in the disposition of such cases, and to render possible the proper placing of children in such circumstances, the Michigan legislature in 1889 amended the law for the "protection of children," and in so doing reaffirmed the English and American rule.

The introduction of this rule into statute law is new. The statute does not modify the rule, but is intended to secure uniformity in practice. The law imposes on the judge the duty to inquire whether the family is a proper one for the education of the child in cases of habeas corpus coming within his jurisdiction. The practice not having been uniform, the courts have hesitated to assume the right to declare parental rights forfeited. In the court the parents can present their claims, while the child is mute. The law requires that the child shall be heard, and that the law shall be interpreted in its interests. The new provisions introduced in the Michigan statutes are as follows:

"SEC. 15. In all suits or proceedings in chancery, and in all habeas corpus proceedings where the custody of any child under sixteen years of age is in controversy, if the court or judge shall be satisfied from the evidence that either party to such proceedings would illtreat such child, within the meaning of this act if placed in his custody, or otherwise would be unsuitable to have such custody, the said judge or court may order that the other party to such proceedings shall have the custody of such child during minority, if it shall appear to the satisfaction of such judge or court that such other party would be a suitable one to have such custody and would not illtreat such child within the meaning of this act. And if it shall appear to the satisfaction of the judge or court that neither party to such proceedings is a suitable one to have such custody, the judge or court shall order that the parties to such proceedings have forfeited any rights that they may have had to the custody of said child during minority, and the custody of such child during minority shall, in the discretion of such judge or court, be disposed of by such judge or court by either of the methods provided in section fourteen of this act. The contract when made and approved by said judge or court shall be filed in the probate court, and the judge of probate of the probate court where the contract is filed shall have the same authority to cancel such contract and dispose of the child again as provided in said section

fourteen as in other cases: *Provided*, That in all cases arising under the provisions of this act appeal shall be allowed as in other cases triable before said court."

The new Michigan law, combined with the American practice, requires of the parents the exercise of their authority for the welfare of the child, and at the same time offers full protection against illtreatment. While the State of Michigan was the first to establish an institution for dependent children, that State is also the first one which has clearly defined what constitutes illtreatment, and provided for those illtreated ample protection.*

The writer of this report will be amply compensated if this sketch of the English and American laws for the protection of illtreated children will call the attention of the members of the congress to the urgent necessity of similar measures for the protection of children who are found in the unfortunate conditions above named. In consecrating their labors to preventive methods, as well as to the treatment of adult criminals, members of the congress can be assured of a certain and efficient success, as well as in considering repressive measures or prison discipline.

I will conclude this work by repeating what I said in the Congress of Rome:

"The Congress of St. Petersburg, will it not give the highest prominence to the work of prevention? Will it not place prevention where it belongs, at the head of all questions relative to the reform and punishment of criminals?"

"*Save the child and it will not be necessary to correct or punish the man.*"

Senator Roussel, in his remarkable report to the French Senate, says: "It is only in organizing a system of preventive education that we can noticeably influence the moral development of our young population and arrest this rising wave of offenses and crimes which so alarm public opinion."

MR. FUCHS AND OTHERS ON PREVENTION.

Mr. Ad. Fuchs, councilor of finances and president of the central committee of the Union of Societies of Patronage at Karlsruhe, presented a report on the third question of the third section.

Though the question did not contemplate the placing of delinquent children in families, the learned author considered the propriety of placing those children in families as well as abandoned or dependent children. In his treatment of the question he considers three classes of children, as follows:

1. Those children who otherwise have good natural dispositions, but who in consequence of a neglected or bad education, or who have before them the example of unnatural parents, find themselves morally abandoned.

2. Those children who, having innate faults of character, such as insolence, willfulness, violence, wickedness, envy, cruelty, malignant hatred, vengeance, and other like hereditary tendencies strongly developed, under the influence of an education morally bad, do not combat but develop further their evil tendencies.

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* The "Child and State," a very useful California paper, in speaking of the meeting of the Sixteenth National Conference of Corrections and Charities held in San Francisco in 1889, said: "Mr. Randall did well to tell the conference in this city what his own State was doing to protect its illtreated children. That wonderfully inspiring series of gatherings would have justified their existence, if they had done no more than give us the Michigan definition of what illtreatment means."

3. The class that includes the children who have already entered on the road to crime. They are yet too young to be considered as having acted with discernment, or they have attained the legal age of discernment and are punished for the first time, or are in the condition of relapse, and after having undergone the punishment to which they have been condemned should be subject to the régime of compulsory education.

Neither of these divisions includes the dependent child who has not been delinquent. In this respect the writer follows the precedent of writers and legislatures for many years, who have uniformly waited until the dependent child became criminal, and then provided for him in reformatories or in prisons. But there can be no doubt that delinquent children should as far as possible have the benefits of family life, and all discussions favoring that course should have favorable consideration. The conclusions of the writer are as follows:

1. The system of placing in families presents unquestionable advantages for securing the education, the work, and the future of the children or young persons morally abandoned and placed for various reasons under the guardianship or supervision of public authority, but on condition that the placing in families occurs in the first period of the moral abandonment, and that the selection of the family or master of apprenticeship be made with the greatest care. The special conditions which each case presents should demand attention, and compensation corresponding to the service required should be awarded.

2. In all cases where it appears necessary to apply educational methods to secure moral reform, that is to say, when the moral abandonment is inveterate, when the character of the child renders education difficult, or, finally, when the evident symptoms of perversity manifest themselves, commitment to an establishment of correctional education should be substituted for a family. However, this latter educational system should be for the essential purpose of improving with the utmost promptness the child's character, to the end that he may soon have the benefit of family education.

Mr. Soma Cornelius Krajsik, professor at Zólyon, Hungary, presented a report on the third question of the third section.

He, more than any other European writer, recognizes a class of children in society who are dependent only and who are not yet delinquent, though in danger of becoming so.

At the close of his paper the writer submits the following resolutions:

1. The congress declares that in a moral and practical view the system of placing in families children who are untainted morally, and who are sound in mind and body, is an advantageous one, and that young girls should be the first to receive the benefits of a home in a respectable family.

2. As we can not dispense with establishments even under the régime of family discipline, and as both systems have their advantages and their inconveniences and as the latter can be neutralized by a combination of the two methods, and, finally, as guilty and delinquent children in houses of correction have frequently given evidence of reformation, thus showing the family system to be desirable for them, the congress decides that, in order to profit by the advantages of both systems, it would be wise to combine them in the following manner:

(*a*) The child placed under public guardianship should be first sent to a temporary home for a period of time greater or less in duration according to its needs. An inquiry made during this time into its previous life, its tendencies, its moral and mental condition, will enable those in charge to ascertain which of the two systems should be applied in each case.

(*b*) The final mental and moral development of the child or the taste which it manifests for such or such a career will be the basis on which to decide whether the child placed in a family should be transferred to an institution or whether the care of the child already placed in an institution should be confided to a family.

(*c*) The foster parents and teachers should be chosen with great prudence, taking into account both the individuality of the child and the material condition and irreproachable life of the family where the child is to be placed, all of which should offer a sufficient guaranty for the physical, moral, and intellectual development of the child.

(*d*) During the time the child remains in the family its support, education, and development should be the object of serious supervision.

From the American standpoint, and especially from the Michigan, no European writer has more clearly stated the correct doctrine which should prevail regarding dependent children than has the above writer. He must have caught some inspiration from the Michigan system, with which he appears familiar, citing Mr. Randall's report on page 25 of his admirable paper.

There were twelve or fifteen reports from various countries in responding to the third question of the third section. It would be impossible to review them all here. But one more will be cited to present the differences in conditions which exist in the several countries, showing that what is entirely feasible in one may be done only with difficulty in another. The principal reason of American success in placing children in families, and especially among farmers, grows out of the fact that the average material condition of the American family and its education is greatly in advance of what it is in most of the European nations. In many countries of Europe there are fewer families among the common people, farmers or mechanics, who possess sufficient means, and who are able to take these children and provide for their support and education during minority. Under the Michigan system most of the children are placed with farmers' families, where they are treated as other children, as "members of the family," as the indenture requires. In such families they have excellent opportunities. The average American family is an educated one. The public schools, the country church (sometimes held in the schoolhouse), the weekly paper, and sometimes the daily, the monthly magazine, the local government of school district and township, in which all are alike interested and in which all are equal, are vital living forces, which enter into, influence, and develop the American citizen. Out of these families, from off the farms, from among the farmer boys and girls, come the best and ablest men and women of the land. This is why children in America are placed in families and especially on the farms.

To present this question from the Russian standpoint a translation will be given of the report of Mr. Tutchéw, director of the agricultural colony of St. Petersburg, which paper was presented by the Commission of the Society of Jurisprudence of St. Petersburg, which society was represented by so many able papers and workers in the congress. The writer discourses on the third question of the third section, and says:

There are two methods by which children under public guardianship are brought up. By one of these methods the children are placed in special institutions established for this kind of education, and by the other they are placed in respectable families charged with their education. The latter system has been in operation in Switzerland since the eighteenth century as well as in certain provinces of Germany, and probably preceded the foundation of certain special establishments devoted to the education of children placed under the guardianship of the public. In France, in the year 1832, Minister d'Argout ordered the placing of young persons, acquitted under article 66 of the penal code, with respectable farmers or mechanics. They could not be placed in houses of correction unless unforeseen circumstances prevented the execution of this order. In Prussia, according to the law of March 13, 1878, the placing of children in private families is considered the best method of compulsory education. In the International Prison Congress held the same year in Stockholm, it was decided that the best system for bringing up abandoned or delinquent children was to place them in respectable private families; their admission into special public or private institutions should only be allowed in case of the lack of families where they could be placed. Of this decision Dr. Föhring made this observation:

"I have a firm conviction that this manner of understanding the question has only an academic value, I will say an ideal value; but in reality this subject should be considered from another point of view."

The opinion of Dr. Föhring is in reference to the children who require a correctional education. The placing of such children *in* private families, employed as a means of compulsory education is yet a question which requires solution.

Notice what can be said in favor of placing in families:

1. The adoption of children into private families places them under conditions more suitable to domestic life than the régime employed in establishments in common and necessarily facilitates at the same time their finished education and their entrance to social life.

2. The education of children received in families offers an excellent means to conform to the individual character of each child, and in public establishments this is of necessity more difficult.

3. The training received in a family raises the hope that afterwards the child will not be abandoned, and that its material welfare will be provided for (exceptions to this last case are very rare), while public institutions can not furnish such expectations.

On the contrary, the following objections can be made to the system just named:

1. A private family will always be as strangers to the child in their care and can never take the place of *its* own family. [Michigan experience decidedly contradicts every word of this, in the case of dependent, not delinquent, children.]

2. A natural prudence will render the father of the family disturbed by the influence which a delinquent child may exercise over his own children. The admission of a strange child into a respectable family will consequently afford an exceptional case in compulsory education.

3. A family capable of satisfying all the exigencies that attend the bringing up, and above all, the compulsory education of a child, is very difficult to find. The good intentions which the family exhibit, as well as the general esteem which they enjoy, do not offer sufficient guaranties. The authorities or the administrations which place

children in families are necessarily required to give attention and especial care to the selection of suitable families for the purpose, and this can only be done in rare cases.

4. A supervision or a control charged with watching over the execution of the contract with the family will be, in regard to the child, indispensable. A supervision of this kind, which has been proposed by the priest, Mr. Brehm, of Neukirchen, presents too great difficulties in its application.

The placing of children in private families does not always furnish the work which conforms to the disposition or the aptness of the child. On the other hand, it is feared that the family charged with its education will not cultivate the skill of the child.

The ideas we present permit us to insist that the compulsory education given in public institutions is preferable to that the children can receive in private families, especially so, if these children are affected by any vice, or have not reached their majority, and find themselves for this reason placed under public guardianship. Establishments of this kind answer better all necessary conditions to give the children a serious training, to cultivate a taste for work, and to assure their future.

At the same time there are cases where the training of children in public institutions should be transferred to private families. We refer to foundling asylums. The number of foundlings admitted to the foundling asylums in St. Petersburg reaches 9,000 annually. At Moscow, in 1887, there were 16,751 received. It is nearly impossible to create an establishment large enough to care for and raise so great a number of children, especially if we remember that the number of foundlings increases annually. It is for this reason that asylums necessarily send the children to the villages when their health will permit. In 1887 the foundling asylum of Moscow had placed in the villages 29 per cent. of the infants from 2 to 3 weeks old, and 2 per cent. of those over 3 months old.

The villages to which the foundling asylums send infants are situated in the environs of that city and have a space of 47,000 square *versts*, divided into 23 districts.

The number of infants placed in these districts reaches 31,013; of which 10,235 have not reached 4 years. The number above 9 years was 16,487. It would be more difficult to establish and maintain special institutions to raise these 10,000 infants under 4 years than to place them in private families. In this way the problem of education in a private family is very much simplified: first, because the education of infants begins, so to speak, in the cradle; secondly, because they are not reclaimed from correctional education, and finally, by reason of the strong attachment established between the child and the family, its life becomes identified with its guardians, and thus the stranger child is often adopted. In 1887, 156 children from the foundling asylums of Moscow were adopted in this way.

The managers of the foundling asylums are required to watch over the lives of the children, to care for their health, and to give them at 9 years of age primary instruction in the schools. When the school studies terminate the best scholars are placed in different institutions where they continue their studies. January 1, 1888, the foundling asylum of Moscow had 141 children of this class. The greatest number of children who finish their studies at the school remain until their majority (21 years) in the families where they are raised. Very few among them learn any trade.

In 1881 the foundling asylum of Moscow had 1,141 scholars apprenticed, that is a little less than 4 per cent. of the whole number. By this it will be seen that apprenticeship to trade in families is due exclusively to accidental circumstances.

While in special institutions professional study is a part of the imposed education, apprenticeship to a trade is obligatory.

The administration of foundling asylums is charged, moreover, with the care of diseased children during their life. In 1887, for their support in the asylum of Moscow and environs 17,451 rubles and 15 copecks were expended. This was for 736 children. From statistics thus gained, we learn that methods adapted to infants placed in private families can not be used for children tainted with vice and stand-

ing in need of a reformatory course of training. This régime is good only for young orphans who have no home.

Placing children in families for the purpose of perfecting them in trades or training them in field labor is expedient in the following cases only: When the child's reformation is established his entrance into a family life will be a conditional liberation or a provisional measure that can at the time of his discharge from the establishment facilitate his admission into social life.

Finally, when infirm, idiotic, and insane children are discharged from public asylums, they can receive better care if placed in private families.

It is difficult generally to substitute an education for minors in private families that would equal that of correctional education introduced in public institutions.

In conclusion, the commission of the Society of Jurisprudence of St. Petersburg is of the opinion that—

1. The substitution of the system of imposed education in public institutions by an educational régime in private families is neither possible nor desirable.

2. However, the latter régime can serve for the completion of the education of the children when they go out from a public institution, provided always that the family has a filial relation with the institution, and that in continuing their relations with the managers the children will be under the supervision of the institution.

3. These relations once established, the admission into families would be useful for the youngest children or those who have not reached the age of detention in public establishments, and will be considered as an act of benevolence and protection.

It will be seen that the idea of a radical separation of dependent from delinquent children, either in families or in institutions, does not appear in this report and scarcely in that of any European writer. This radical separation is the very basis of the Michigan system, which especially deals with placing dependent children in families, and does not taint the children with crime by associating them with delinquents. At the same time it provides for placing delinquent children in families by the reform schools, which is somewhat unsuccessful, owing to the character of the children.

Mr. V. Lütken, chaplain of the penitentiary of Vridslöselille and president of the patronage society of that prison, and of Seeland, Denmark, reported on the third question of the third section. He names sixty-one institutions for children in Denmark founded by citizens, cities, etc., for dependent and delinquent children, supported by the public or by private charity, each different in its objects and work. He gave an interesting account of the rise and progress of Danish institutions for children. In one place he quotes Mr. L. Schroeder, a member of the Diet, who submitted the following theses:

1. In most cases it would be proper to educate abandoned children separately from children in asylums or depots of vagrants.

2. Small homes for children are preferable to large.

3. It is especially desirable that the management of children's homes should be confided to women living alone and who have the gift of raising children.

In one place the writer lays down two rules which are worthy of consideration:

1. A child who has begun to deviate from the right should not be transferred to another family, but to a home for children, or to an educational establishment.
2. Homes and educational institutions should not be too much separated from the people.

The following are the general conclusions of this writer:

1. It is necessary to reflect seriously upon the needs of childhood so as to treat those who really are children as such, and above all not to lose sight of the fact that the young in the age of transition are children rather than adults.
2. The punishment of a child should only be as a part of its education. Therefore, every punishment that has not an educational purpose and is not conducive to it, whether dictated by the family, by the school, or by the State, is to be condemned.
3. The punishment or the treatment of children ought to be regulated not by legal principles, which would put the children on a real "bed of Procrustes," but upon the pedagogic principle, so that in the first place it will not be asked what is legally just for children of this age, but what is proper and judicious for the child in question from an educational point of view.
4. The punishment or treatment should be adapted not so much to the special case of violation of rule as to the moral disposition of the child. On the one hand, it would not be just that for vagabondage at one time or for breaking windows at another the child should be confined for several years in a reform school. On the other hand, for the same reason, the law should give place to a less severe construction and even in the gravest cases be content with admonition, taking into account the special circumstances of the case and particularly the surroundings of the child. Concerning the placement of the child, in view of education or correction, provision should be made in instances where the well-being of the child would be imperiled by the persistent indifference of the parents or guardians, or by evil surroundings, as well as in cases where the character and the conduct of the child would be of such a nature that the school or family could not benefit him.
5. The authority which determines the disposition of children should be able to select most convenient means in respect to teaching and to guaranty its freedom from interruption and derangement as long as the education is incomplete. It is absolutely necessary that he who disposes of the child should know him. Consequently this work should not be done by distant authority, but by the nearest possible local authority or the nearest court. An understanding should always be had with the family when it is a respectable one, and, above all, with the school, so that it could in one way or another give its advice if the child is yet under compulsory education. Besides this, the family or the school should have the right to appeal from the sentence rendered. When the child is received into an educational or correctional institution the parental authority should be transferred to the establishment during minority.

The closing sentences of this writer are well worth reproducing here. He says:

The principal point always is when a boy or girl has committed a misdemeanor or an offense, not only to search for the sections of the law which have been violated, but to inquire concerning the nature of the child and in what surroundings he has lived. Will an admonition answer the purpose? If not, should the correction be more severe than corporal punishment? Would chastisement assist family education and the school? Should the child in this case be reinstated? Should this child be taken from the family and placed in an educational institution? Is the moral condition of the child so alarming as to make it necessary to send him to a reform school, and which of our institutions is the best for his age, his physical and mental development, and his

moral condition? Finally, are we dealing with a child or a young criminal whom it is necessary to commit to a penitentiary?

In each particular case the solution of these questions should be indicative of the treatment to apply, and should not be regulated by a general table of ages and crimes, but according to the nature and condition of each child, after consultation with the school and the family, for criminal children more than others have need of personal attention and educational treatment.

The disposal of dependent children is in Russia a most serious question. Conditions do not appear to encourage the placing of children in families, and the aim so far in institutions is only to prepare the child for service or for mechanical trades. There is little opportunity for the child to rise in social position if placed on a farm in Russia. If he is taught a trade, there is more probability of advancement. Hence, as shown by reports, Russian writers do not appear to have in their own minds reached a satisfactory conclusion. For instance, an extract will be given here from the report of Mr. Douchowsky, a Moscow professor. He pictures an ideal institution; he not only makes his institution, but he creates special families as adjuncts. He says:

Is it possible, then, to remove by a regular organization all the inconveniencies of which I speak, and can we find an efficient method, capable of neutralizing the evil suffered by the child as well as by the teacher and the family. It is difficult to say, but it seems to me possible to diminish the evil by organizing the work according to a thorough system. Thus we could, in my opinion, establish for this purpose a few organized colonies of a normal kind, the members of which should devote themselves exclusively to the education of the children placed with them. These colonies should be established near asylums or in villages where conditions would be favorable for placing children.

The asylum and colony would thus form together an indivisible and complete system. The child or youth placed under the supervision and guardianship of the authorities would first enter the asylum. In this way his qualities and character could be studied. Then the children and youth who are healthy physically and morally should be confided to a family of the colony, a family well known to the administration of the asylum. The child placed would continue its relation with the asylum, where there would be a school and a common church. The director of the asylum would exercise a great influence on the colony, and have supervision of all the children. This supervision should be actual and permanent. I do not know in Russia an example of the organization I propose, but I believe it would be well to establish one. In this way we could contribute to the solution of a difficult question: How to render healthy, physically and morally, vicious and abandoned children and make them useful citizens of the state.

The writer outlines a system which may appear chimerical, but one which has some interesting features worthy of careful consideration. In it the family system is prominent, but it is artificial, not the natural one which in after life the child may experience.

Dr. Romeo Taverni, professor of the art of teaching in the University of Catana, Italy, presented a report on the third question of the third section. After a lengthy discussion of the subject the following conclusions were reached:

1. The state should have, besides orphan asylums and other charitable institutions of like character for children and youth placed by law under

its guardianship, three distinct kinds of reformatories—one for those committed by request of parents, one for the accused awaiting trial, and the third for those convicted of crime by law. Such institutions would be useful as a means of technical instruction not only in cities but in rural districts also.

2. The guardianship or supervision which public authority exercises in many ways over those under age could be bettered in a great degree by placing a certain number of them in private families for education. This is specially recommended for young girls.

3. The practice on the part of the state of confiding certain minors to private families for their education may be harmonized with that of placing them in reformatories on the congregate plan.

4. It is proper that the directors and instructors of the state reformatories should be laymen.

5. With the approval of competent judicial authority, the accused and the convicted under 18 years of age, upon whom sentence has not been executed, should be committed by the state to responsible families for education during the term of their preventive detention. Local societies, either of patronage of prisoners or of discharged convicts, should be urged by the public authority to provide these families and to supervise them.

6. It is best for the state to decrease its expense by favoring the establishment of private reformatory institutions.

The Evil Influences of Parents.

SENATOR ROUSSEL, OF FRANCE.

The seventh question of the first section would seem appropriate in the third section. It would also appear proper to call attention here to some of the answers to that question. It deals largely with illtreated children and their proper protection and education as a very efficient agency of prevention. Among the most prominent writers on the seventh question of the first section, in regard to the evil influence of parents and how to counteract it, is the distinguished Senator Roussel, of France, the author of the remarkable report to the French Senate on dependent and delinquent children.

The author begins by saying:

It is not rare when a minor is convicted by the courts to hear the regret expressed that the really guilty parties, the parents, have escaped punishment. This reflection, brought out by the special facts, has almost general comprehension.

It can be said that it characterizes the family associations from which emanate nearly all the young delinquents and young criminals, and it indicates correctly the principal source of the criminality of minors, the alarming progress of which has been shown in countries most advanced in civilization. We do not have to demonstrate the evil influence of parental example upon the development already so precocious of vicious instincts and criminal tendencies. According to the terms of the question submitted to us, we are to seek for the means of protecting until their majority, young convicts in a state of conditional liberation, and also those who have completed the term of their imprisonment.

The pernicious influence of parents relative to minors is manifested in two ways and at two periods in the life of the child. First, in extreme youth when he is only a burden, his parents neglect him. He is left without proper care, often without food, and subjected to all hazards of the streets; he is forced to be a vagabond and a beggar, and this situation continues until a violation of law places the little unfortunate in the hands of justice. Later everything is changed. When by maturity of age and the good effects of penitentiary education the child instead of being a burden can be a source of profit, we see these same parents, who had abandoned him in his infancy and apparently had forgotten him altogether, go to him and win him back to them by their entreaties, and finally on his discharge regain him by virtue of parental authority. This indiscretion of evil parents operates in the same way in the case of children brought up by charity, and it is in this way that the fruits of correctional or charitable education are corrupted, and that a great many minors, who would have become useful members of society, are definitely lost to it. It is to the infallible remedy of this evil in certain local conditions that the seventh question of the first section has been submitted to the congress.

In this connection the picture above drawn by Senator Roussel brings to mind a thrilling and touching incident related by Viscount D'Haussonville at the beginning of his able work, "L'Enfance á Paris." He says:

Some years ago a band of criminals were brought before the jury of the Seine charged with a terrible crime, the assassination of an aged widow, with details of ferocity which the pen refuses to describe. The president of the court having asked the principal, Maillot called "the Yellow," how he had been brought to commit such a crime, he replied:

"What do you wish I should tell you, Mr. President? Since the age of seven years I have been found only on the streets of Paris. I have never met anyone who was interested in me. When a child I was abandoned to every vicissitude—and I am lost. I have always been unfortunate. My life has been passed in prisons and jails. This is all. It is my fate. I have thus reached—you know where. I will not say I have committed this crime under circumstances independent of my will, but finally—[here the voice of Maillot trembled]—I never had a person to advise me. I had in view only robbery. I committed robbery, but I ended with murder."

The two pictures, one drawn by Senator Ronssel and the other some years ago by Viscount D'Haussonville, are typical of neglected childhood in the great cities and demonstrate how, by such neglect, society creates within itself a criminal population that some day will fearfully prey upon it. The proper care and education of dependent children and the timely protection of the illtreated might have prevented what must now be suffered. It must be remembered that in all these cases of crime society suffers far more than the one individual, the offender, who is removed from its midst by the execution of the law.

Senator Roussel reviews at length the treatment of the seventh question in its various forms at the Congresses of London, Stockholm, and Rome, giving extracts from the discussions and the resolutions adopted, with comments thereon. He also reviews the provisions of the French law and the progress made lately on the project reported by him in the senate, in his great report referred to above. This project of law, as it passed the senate, was the most perfect in its general plan and details of any that ever came before a legislative body. The house of

deputies has very much modified the original project and has considably lessened its scope. Certain portions of the senatorial project became law July 23, 1889, having for their object the protection of ill-treated, dependent, and morally abandoned children.

But the act of 1889, in the opinion of Senator Roussel, is yet incomplete and should be materially amended, as he says in the following extract from his report:

In conclusion, it appears from the preceding statement that to secure in French legislation the protection of young prisoners on conditional liberation, and of young convicts after the expiration of their sentence, it is necessary:

1. To modify article 66 of the penal code by extending until the twenty-first year, that is to say until majority, or in the case of a boy, until the time when he will be called into military service, the power to fix the duration of correctional imprisonment.

2. To add to the law of August 5, 1850, the provision of which the text has been given above and which permits, first, to withdraw from the parents during the time of conditional liberty the exercise of parental rights, and secondly, to deprive the parents of the young convict of the guardianship of his person until his majority or his discharge, if they have been convicted of certain offenses or have voluntarily abandoned their child, or have habitually neglected to watch over him, or if they are guilty of notorious conduct.

3. To aid in the protection not only of minors brought before the courts for violations of law, but also of those cared for by public charity, or by a charitable association, or even by an individual, the provisions of the law of July 23, 1889, should be applied. * * *

If the search for preventive methods which has already had a large place in the works of the three International Prison Congresses should retain its importance in the future congresses, we can not pass in silence this remark,

That above direct means, which have been indicated, to counteract the pernicious influence of parents or guardians over children or wards, at the time of their conditional liberation or at the expiration of their sentence, should be placed the means of reclamation applicable to these children before any intervention of the courts. The superiority of the measures proposed by the senate of France, distinctly protecting the child before the abuse of paternal power had made him a delinquent or a criminal, will be admitted. It withdrew him at the very time when the abuse of paternal authority took place or at the time of sentence, when he was placed in a reformatory, or at the time of conditional liberation.

Therefore, we do not fear to repeat this conclusion, which is the result of a long experience, namely: That if we wish to arrest the progress of crime, especially with minors, it is of less importance to improve the prison régime for young prisoners than it is to establish, on the ground of charity, the legal, moral, and professional education of abandoned, dependent, and illtreated children.

The reports and discussions relative to child-saving in the preliminary work of the congress and in the congress itself show the extended interest in the subject which has become the most interesting of any connected with penal science. The world every day is learning better the truth that if the child is saved to a good life there will be no grown-up man to punish. It is because of the great importance of the subject and that the congress gave so full a hearing that so much space has been given it here.

JOHN HOWARD.

All that has been said, however, is but a suggestion or intimation of the many things said and done at the congress for the cause of dependent, delinquent, and illtreated children.

PUBLIC CONFERENCES.

PROFESSOR SPASSOWITCH ON JOHN HOWARD.

The series of public conferences at St. Petersburg were inaugurated on the opening day of the congress by Professor Spassowitch. The organization of these conferences is an innovation proposed to the local committee by the International Prison Commission, which desired in this manner to popularize the penitentiary studies and to enlighten public opinion upon every question relative to prevention of crime and the treatment of the condemned.

The subject of the first conference was John Howard. Mr. Spassowitch entertained for more than an hour a large audience upon the life and works of the great philanthropist. We can give here only a brief résumé of that interesting conference, which, with the others, would fill one of the volumes of the proceedings of the congress.

Following is the résumé:

The centennial of the death of John Howard, who died the 20th of January, 1790, was celebrated by a religious service in Russia, and the Prison Commission conceived the happy thought of inaugurating the Fourth Congress by doing homage to the memory of the founder of the present prison régime. The great penal reform, which began in the eighteenth century and continued without relaxation to the nineteenth century, recognizes two men, equally celebrated, but with different titles, who were closely united in thought and work and at the same time unknown to each other—Cæsar Beccaria, the theorist, and John Howard, the man of deeds. The work of Beccaria, "Trattato dei Delitti e Delle Pene," published in 1764, produced a great sensation in Europe, which was owing to the fact that it was a faithful interpretation and exquisite tribute to the great progressive movement of the eighteenth century, tending to demolish the institutions of the Middle Ages, beyond which they had already gone in ideas, sentiments, and customs. Beccaria had by a single stroke convinced the hesitating people and showed with such powerful eloquence the abuses and ancient iniquities to which they still held that the cause of humanity was gained. After having published his book he fell back into obscurity. The ideas of which he was the apostle were not completely realized in Russia until 100 years after the publication of his book—that is to say, by the promulgation of the judiciary codes of Emperor Alexander II, of November 20, 1864.

All others were the precedents of John Howard, who belonged to a nation proud of its political institutions and liberty, but possessing very severe political ethics, boasting of an ardent religious spirit, but lacking tolerance. He was, above all, a religious man, a Calvinist and

Dissenter, but his religious austerity gave way to a nature charitable in the highest degree and benevolent by an imperious necessity of his moral being. Born in 1726, and 12 years older than Beccaria, he had no fixed calling at the age of 40 years. It was only in 1773, when he was appointed sheriff of Bedford, that he found his vocation and was able to give employment to his active powers with profit to his fellow creatures. Without troubling himself with theoretical questions upon the right to punish, he limited his attention to the régime of prisons only, but he appropriated to himself that domain and reigned there as master. By his method of investigation, and the extraordinary exertion he bestowed upon the collection and classification of facts, and finally by the generalization of these facts, a generalization so fruitful that it held for him the place of imagination, he became almost an inventor and creator of systems. He explored to the depths repeatedly every prison of Great Britain, took an active part in the reorganization of English prisons by acts of Parliament, began a series of voyages abroad, explored all the European continent from Spain and Constantinople as far as Stockholm, St. Petersburg, and Moscow, always with one fixed purpose, but enlarging his ideas more and more, and understanding in the end, thoroughly, prisons, schools, and hospitals. An ardent love of truth gained the ascendency over his English prejudices, impressed as he was with the sentiment of national superiority. He confessed that he had blushed for his native land many times; that the nations on the Continent far excelled England in prison construction. He appropriated every useful invention, whatever might be the country where he found it. After having become acquainted with prisons in Holland, and at Ghent in the Austrian Flanders, he borrowed the idea of compulsory labor for prisoners. The superior organization of this reformatory work, although compulsory, was a ray of light for Howard. He made it one of the three principal foundations of his programme, the two others being discipline and an education especially moral and religious.

Feeble in constitution and submitting voluntarily to a régime of life almost ascetic, eating only vegetables, abstaining from every kind of intoxicating drink, Howard was still far from being separated from the world; on the contrary he took a lively interest in it, displaying many times qualities of an intrepid soldier. He showed proof of physical courage and of great moral resolution, speaking fearlessly and without reserve to the powers of the world and to sovereigns. The distance traveled by him in his penitentiary and sanitary researches was enormous and amounted to 4,200 miles. That was without precedent in an age when railroads were unknown. He expended in the promulgation of his ideas a fortune of £30,000, and, without being a man of letters, he wrote an admirable book which will remain as one of the remarkable monuments of the literature of the eighteenth century, "The State of Prisons in England and Wales," Warrington, 1777.

The ideas of Howard were not immediately adopted in Russia. They were counteracted even in England by the adoption, against his opinion, of transportation for the higher crimes to Botany Bay. It was not until 1857 that England definitely renounced transportation and returned to the proposition of Howard; that is, to a system beginning by the most severe confinement and step by step leading to greater privileges and gradually to a return to society.

The same problem appeared in Russia after the liberation of the serfs in 1861. It was then expected there would be a definite abandonment of transportation to Siberia and to the island of Saghalien; that is to say, the employment at the same time of a double system of imprisonment for ordinary crimes and transportation for the greater—two systems often contradictory, more difficult to perfect than a single system which was consistent and homogeneous. The immense task incumbent on Russia at this time can not be accomplished by science alone, nor by the Government alone. It requires the coöperation of the intelligent classes, not by pecuniary aid only, but by personal efforts; above all, by the patronage of prison aid societies, which do not exist and which are to be formed. The example of Howard is, above all, valuable to Russia in attracting philanthropists and as demonstrating what a private person may do by his persevering efforts.

The conference was followed by a very pleasant reception by the mayor in the Hotel de Ville.

PRISON REFORM—TANCRED CANONICO.

On the 16th of June there was a public conference at which Mr. Tancred Canonico, a distinguished senator of Italy, was the speaker. His address covers so well the principal questions of prison reform it is given in full. His thoughts may not differ from those expressed by some of our best writers on that subject, but they indicate at least the similarity of sentiment in those best informed. Senator Canonico has long been known as a very able writer on various questions relative to prisons, and this is one reason for this attempt to transfer his views to our language. He spoke as follows:

MR. PRESIDENT, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: It is a matter of no small importance when so many persons from various countries, many of whom are eminent, are met for so important a purpose as the security of the public and the moral reform of criminals. But a special emotion moves our hearts when we see ourselves welcomed with such a splendid and cordial hospitality; when we see the marked interest in our work shown by His Majesty the Emperor, who has named as the honorary president of the congress a prince so intimately allied with the imperial family, whom I see with gratitude listening to my poor words, honoring the opening of our sessions by his presence and that of his august and gracious wife; in seeing ourselves surrounded by so many distinguished ladies, having at their head an imperial princess who has always devoted herself to improving the condition of prisoners, faithful to the noble and holy mission of woman, aiding by thought and action all efforts for the relief of the moral and physical miseries of humanity. By the union of so many brilliant attractions there is about us an atmosphere of heat and light which warms the heart and

brightens the intellect. The most noble faculties are elevated by this inspiration. While I speak I shall feel this, but at the same time I shall experience a difficulty above all in presenting all I would say clearly in a language which is not my own. Consider then, I pray you, not the speaker, but the truth that is spoken. Reflected by the ocean or by a drop of water the sun is always the sun.

1. *The origin and development of prison reform.*—From the remotest ages criminals have been punished; but in different epochs how differently has punishment been regarded! It is this slow and continual transformation in ideas regarding it which, little by little, changes penal laws and suppresses old systems. Let us follow with a synthetical and rapid glance the gradual change of ideas and we will have the key to the present prison system. Punishment, regarded from a broad point of view, is not alone endured in prison. We can truly say in this respect that the entire world is a great penal establishment. What is man here below and what does he not suffer? And all suffering, which is only punishment—mark it well—is the consequence of errors or faults committed by ourselves or by generations that have preceded us. The history of each people and of each individual is identical.

Each man suffers his own secret punishment, be it great or small; but it happens only too often that serious misdemeanors are committed that injure others and imperil the safety of society. Then the social power in subjecting the guilty to a treatment more or less severe, only makes itself the organ, so far as necessary for the public safety, of this general inherent law in the constitution of human nature which, for each deviation from the right way, provides a punishment as a sanction of the true way and as a call for reform. And the treatment of criminals varies not only according to the gravity of the crimes and the guilt of each; not only according to the difference of circumstances, but also according to the idea with which each epoch and each government establishes its penalties and executes them. Every modification in the general idea exerts its influence on the conception of the punishment which should be inflicted on criminals, and consequently on the mode of application.

In the earliest times all suffering and pain was supposed by men who attributed to divinity their vices and passions to proceed from the vengeance of the gods, as a fixed destiny from which men could not escape. In this way even Aristotle regards it as an inevitable necessity that some men should be free and some should be slaves. A heavy and sad atmosphere weighed as lead upon poor humanity. According to the ancient Greeks, Fate was superior to the gods. There was no place for the free judgment of man. Fatalism was the essential character of paganism. It is so in our day with the belief of the Musselman and the people of Asia in general.

This common conception of the penalty to be applied to the punishment of the guilty is converted in time into a sentiment of revenge by society, with the most complete indifference as to the condition of the criminals. The sentiment of justice and the influence of religion modified in some respect this cruel indifference. But it was always a justice purely exterior and coarse, taking account only of the apparent and sensible manifestations of criminal action. Hence came the law of retaliation, so general in ancient times, "An eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth."

But suddenly, in the midst of the somber skies, a comforting ray shone on this unfortunate earth. This celestial ray awakened in the soul the faith that by suffering we can expiate crime; that by suffering man can redeem himself, because suffering enables him to look within his heart, to detect his errors, to detest them, and to repair them, and in that way to remove the evils which have been caused by them. Through this belief a new impulse was given to the mental activity of man. In the midst of his time-worn grief, the poor exile on the earth feels reviving hope. From the depth of his soul he lifts a sigh to this beneficent ray; his heavy eyes look up and are wet with tears. He begins to regain conscience with his moral freedom, as he feels himself delivered from the bondage of sin and passion. The true progress of the people begins thus with the moral advancement of the individual. From that

time punishment begins to develop into repentance. This fruitful transformation elaborated itself during long ages, and continues to-day in the heart of humanity. It has produced, little by little, corresponding changes in many manifestations of social life. There were those upon whom this principle took strong hold for the exclusive object of the moral perfection of themselves and their fellow men. From this class sprang the anchorites and monks, who were only voluntary prisoners; from these the fastings, the mortifications, and the religious penances.

In private life how many griefs are solaced, how many hearts are made glad and revivified by this belief. By it, even in the masses of society, manners are insensibly softened. We see their hereditary enmities end by a solemn peace. Vengeance is tempered by justice, and justice allies itself to clemency.

Sovereign pardon corrects the errors of human justice. The ties between master and slave become less hard, and little by little slavery falls, as the progress of the inferior class advances, and as the conditions of each country permit. The inequality which exists between men is in the nature of things and will always exist. But this inequality will be no more guarded by an impassable barrier. Each raises or lowers himself in social order according to his skill, his work, and his merit. The abolition of serfdom in this great empire, accomplished in the midst of so many obstacles, is not the least glory of the reign of His Majesty, Emperor Alexander II. The difficulties which accompanied and followed this step are inseparable from all great reforms. But they disappear under the action of time, of prudence, and sacrifices, which are necessary in the accomplishment of all real good.

In the meantime it has required centuries to develop the idea of the application of reformation in prison management. When that time arrived the places of punishment began to be called penitentiaries, and the system was called a penitentiary system, the combining of different methods by which an attempt was made to apply the idea of expiation to punishment.

It is not necessary to follow, even in a summary manner, the historical development of the penitentiary system, nor to present a view of the different methods at present existing in the different States; for on the one hand such a review would surpass the limit of this meeting, and on the other, as I address those who know more than myself, I do not desire to abuse their kind attention by useless details. It will suffice to recall by reference the most salient points of the development of these methods, which will be strictly necessary in order to draw some practical conclusions.

The saddest and most glaring fault of ancient prisons being the massing of prisoners in common, the first thing considered was their separation.

In 1677 the Abbé Francis established at Florence a correctional prison on the cellular system. William Penn had already proposed prison labor, with enforced silence, but the principle had not been applied.

The first serious attempt at prison reform is due to Pope Clement XI. In 1703 he constructed in Rome the prison of St. Michael, which is a vast parallelogram, with cells on the two long sides. By separation, education, and moral and religious instruction, they sought to bring back the prisoners to the right road. The words cut in marble, which can be read to-day, "It is a small thing to restrain the wicked by punishment if we do not reform them by a good discipline," contain the essence of all penitentiary reform; so that the construction of this edifice presents the first type of all buildings which, with successive improvements, have since been erected for this purpose.

Maria Theresa, Empress of Austria, followed this example in the prisons which she built in Milan and in Ghent in the second half of the eighteenth century. But these reforms soon found enthusiastic followers in England and America, where the writings of Howard (of whom Mr. Spassowitch presented to us yesterday so living a picture) on the unfortunate condition of prisons and prisoners deeply moved the minds of philanthropists. By the law of 1785 the construction of a cellular prison in Gloucester was ordered, but it was, above all, in America that, under the name of penitentiary system, the reform of prisons assumed a great development.

You are aware that the Society for the Relief of the Unfortunate in Public Prisons (a prisoners' aid society), founded in Philadelphia by the Quakers, began by obtaining some mitigation in corporal punishments and the substitution of imprisonment for execution in some cases, the improvement of Walnut Street prison, and by classifying the prisoners according to the crime committed, and in confining the greatest criminals in separate cells. The example has been followed by many American States. It is scarcely necessary to recall the fact that from 1821 to 1829 there was built in Philadelphia the famous Cherry Hill prison, with nearly 600 cells constructed so as to render communication between prisoners nearly impossible. The isolation is continual. It is modified only by the visits of persons who can aid the guilty in their moral reformation. In Auburn there is established, as you know, isolation during the night, and work in common during the day with compulsory silence.

The several States of the Union have generally adopted one or the other of these systems. In Virginia the Philadelphia system has been adopted for the beginning of the punishment, and the Auburn for the succeeding period.

There was an attempt to introduce the two methods in Millbank prison in England, which was constructed in 1812. Subsequently cellular isolation prevailed there, with some alleviation; a system which was also adopted in Peltonville, inaugurated in 1864. The two systems were likewise attempted in France; the cellular in the prison of Roquette, and the Auburn in the central prisons of Montpelier, Fontevrault, and elsewhere. I can not recall the prisons of France without rendering homage by an affectionate and grateful word to the illustrious Charles Lucas, whose recent loss we deplore. From his youth he powerfully contributed to prison reform, and to the last days of his advanced life he fought for humanitarian reform with all the vigor of a young man. Like a brave soldier he died in the breach. I was honored by his friendship. It is a very sweet duty for me to present here this flower of affection and memory.

Belgium, the different states of Germany, Holland, Sweden, Norway, Switzerland, Russia, Italy, Spain, and Greece have followed with ardor this reform movement in its different manifestations. We have all admired, during these days, the prisons of St. Petersburg. The new penitentiary near the Alexander bridge, over the Neva, known as the Viborg, or new prison, is without doubt one of the finest prisons in Europe. The progress made here is striking; above all since ten years ago, when this branch of the administration was united under one direction, the exclusive jurisdiction of the minister of the interior. It is an honor to the imperial Government, and to the illustrious and eminent officer (Mr. Wraskoy) who has the general direction of the prisons of the empire.

How remarkable that the development of the idea of repentance in the organization of punishment resulted in two prison systems corresponding to the two principal religious orders in which the growth of this same idea produced the system of voluntary repentance, so that Leon Faucher has said with reason that if the world were divided between two prison systems, as it was formerly divided between two great religious orders, it could be said that the Philadelphia system is that of the East and the Auburn that of the West. In the equal development of the same principle applied to two different orders of institutions there is an inward law of human nature that it might be interesting to investigate. But the mind of man is so constituted when it has taken a new direction it does not stop so easily. It was soon perceived that neither of the two systems had an absolute value and neither was exempt from inconveniences. We have seen that in Virginia they had already attempted to unite the two systems by limiting the first part of the punishment to cellular separation. The necessities of colonization in Australia have suggested to the English the idea of the conditional discharge of the prisoner toward the close of his confinement, a discharge always revocable in case of bad conduct. This practice has since been introduced in the system of ordinary punishment. It is thus that the English have begun to distinguish three degrees in temporary punishment, cellular separation, work in common, and conditional discharge.

But Mr. Crofton, whose name is an eulogy, in his work as a member of a commission of inquiry upon the state of prisons in 1853, was impressed by the disorder he found in most places, and he felt profoundly the necessity of an intermediate period of transition between that of work in common and of conditional discharge. The English Government consented to make an experiment in Ireland, and after the good results which followed, it regulated later by an act of parliament the system which is called the Irish.

I do not need to address you on this system in detail, which you understand better than I do. It will suffice to recall that after a period of isolation, where by exclusive contact with reformatory influences they attempt to arouse the conscience of the criminal and to lead him to a firm resolution to live honestly, the prisoner passes to a second period of life and labor in common, where the convicts are separated into different classes according to their conduct.

Then come the intermediate establishments, where the convict puts off the prison uniform; where according to his ability he is given agricultural or industrial work, where he begins to have contact with persons outside in order to become acquainted and more readily find work, when his sentence has expired. A special school is organized to prepare the prisoner to use his liberty well, to show him how to employ himself, and to overcome the difficulties which will meet him on his return to liberty. Finally in the last period of his term comes conditional discharge.

The essential principle of this system is that the convict, having passed in each degree a minimum of time, it depends on his good conduct to raise him to a higher degree; and, on the contrary, he can by bad conduct retrograde from each degree to a lower. Everyone knows the excellent work of Mr. Vander Brugghen on this system. It is impossible to begin reading this work without completing it, such is the interest that the system itself awakens in the reader and such is the love with which the author treats it.

This system has a double object, to individualize as much as possible the application of the punishment adapted to each convict, and to prepare everyone, little by little, for a free, industrious, and honest life.

The fundamental idea of this system responds at the same time to human nature (*non procedit per saltus*) and to the purpose of punishment, which is the safeguard of public security, returning to free life men capable of work, disposed to labor, and of good conduct. It is not surprising then that under different forms this idea has considerably extended and has modified in this way the prisons of different countries. With the exception of perhaps Belgium, where the cellular system during all the imprisonment gives good results, I believe there is not a state in Europe where isolation is exclusively adopted. At the side of prisons of continued isolation, which are becoming more rare, we see rising everywhere prisons with a graduated system. In Italy, after some happy efforts with labor in the open air for the least dangerous among the convicts, all have adopted in the new penal codes the graduated system for long punishments. We have also introduced it in the military penal code, which is at present being studied as much as the nature of military institutions on land and sea will admit.

In extending this principle further, in some states they began to establish conditional punishments for offenses of less gravity; that is to say, the condemned undergoes the punishment only after a second conviction.

With regard to judicial prisons, as they are for a detention which should be brief, applied to the accused whose guilt or innocence is not determined, and during which time it is for the interest of public justice, of public safety, and human dignity that there be no communication between those who are real criminals and those who may not be, every one agrees that the only just and rational system is that of continued cellular separation, although the need of sufficient establishments and financial difficulties prevent in more than one state the entire and complete application of the system.

It is hardly necessary to add that when once the idea of reformation enters the penal institution then comes the desire either to prevent crime in cutting off its sources or to hinder as far as possible the relapse of the criminal on the expiration of the sentence. Hence come the reform schools for the young and societies of patronage. Concerning these complementary institutions of prison reform, the first of which in our days has had a great development, I can not speak now, for they furnish sufficient material for several conferences.

After this summary review of the origin and development of penitentiary reform, I request you to follow me for a short time so that we can together grasp the essential unity of the subject. We can the more easily appreciate the good results which have been obtained, distinguish what is to be avoided and what is yet to be accomplished, so that if we can not fully attain the object sought, we can approach it more and more.

2. *The essence of penitentiary reform.*—I consider only those fundamental principles that are common to all systems, and I understand that the essential unity of prison reform, whatever may be the manner of its application, consists in removing whatever the ancient prisons possessed of cruelty, anti-hygiene, and immorality, and to make the punishment serve for the reform of the criminal. And I ask, in pursuing this noble end, have we not lost sight of the true object of punishment? And in applying this principle, are the means employed adapted to gain the real reform of the guilty?

Observe, then, in what manner we may derive profit from the rapid review we have just made of the prison-reform movement. Consider well the subject upon which I shall address you a few moments longer, if you will give me your kind attention.

The condition of ancient prisons, the treatment and nourishment of prisoners, and their idle congregation were without doubt highly contrary to the health and morality of the prisoners, and consequently to the public interests and social security.

Desiring to remedy these evils, we often fall into the opposite extreme. We have so elaborately attended to the buildings, the cells, the food, and the treatment of the prisoners that many workmen who labor from morning to night to give a morsel of bread to their families, if they knew how they would be treated in certain prisons, they would perhaps prefer—in all save crime—life in the prison to that in their sorry attic. In some places they are so occupied in perfecting their prisons by the best methods of ventilation, heating, pavements, furniture, locks, supervision, and a thousand other details that the essential end of reform, the conversion of the guilty, has imperceptibly passed to a second place. On the contrary, pushing to the extreme the principle of moral reform, it is claimed that so long as the prisoner is unchanged he should remain in confinement. It would be useless, they say, to propose the release of the guilty before the reformation is complete, and the punishment would not be effective, even for public safety, if we returned to society a criminal who would commit new offenses.

In the mean time the great public, seeing these exaggerations, and not seeing much good fruit in those who go out from the prisons, noticing at the same time the increase of crime and that crime is frequently a profession, the exercise of which is only interrupted from time to time some months of the year when the offenders are in prison, cry out, smiling, that all this is but a Utopian theory, pity for rascals to the detriment of honest people. On the other hand the positive school, of which the essential principle is fatalism, founded upon the conditions of a man's organization, innate or hereditary, upon his social surroundings; the locality of his birth and education; upon the impelling causes that determine his actions; sees in all these efforts for the moral reform of the prisoner only the dream of visionaries. And if, in view of public safety, we occupy ourselves with the régime of prisons for the benefit of individual convicts, they see in the criminal only an invalid or an idiot for whom the hospital rather than the prison is the more suitable home.

And, after all, on which side is the truth? I will first say that I am not one of those who despise as folly the influences exercised on the moral tendencies of man, the condition of his organization, the society where he lives, and the circumstances

in which he finds himself. So considerable a part of the human being as is the organization of the body, which is the covering and instrument of his activity and moral actions, can not be set aside when we must estimate the moral value and the imputability of his actions. Two horsemen equally competent in horsemanship can mount, one an excellent horse and the other a sorry jade. If I am obliged to live in an unhealthy place no one can consider it a fault on my part if I am not as well as he who breathes with full lungs the pure air and oxygen of the mountains. The influence even of the bad horse can be such that every progressive movement is impossible; and the influence of a sickly climate can sometimes force me to take to my bed.

Now, all this can prevent the man from acting with entire freedom, but it does not destroy liberty itself. It is only necessary to say that it will require great care to secure utility from a poor horse or to overcome, at least to some extent, the deleterious effect of certain atmospheric conditions. Moral liberty, though narrowed in its exercise, always exists, though at times dormant, and by proper management and more vigorous efforts it can, to a certain extent, overcome these obstacles. Now, it is upon this slight liberty we must act to secure the improvement of the guilty. We tame lions; we can as well tame men.

I will say, in the second place, and I say no new thing, that the ancient prisons were frightful and unhealthy habitations where the criminal stagnated in idleness and filth, where he was poorly fed, and was under the arbitrary power of guards and directors. Now that he has a proper prison and healthy food, obligatory labor and good discipline are not only just but necessary, in the interest of the criminal himself and for that of the public. For, aside from the consideration of the fact that under certain circumstances the unhealthy prison can easily become a center of infection, it is evident that, if the punishment is completed, you return to society a miserable invalid incapable of earning his bread, and in addition to the obstacles which encounter each discharged prisoner he will find the greatest yet—his inability to get work, which, nine times out of ten, will cause him to commit new crimes. Besides, a good hygienic treatment, while improving the physical condition of the prisoner, renders him less irritable and predisposes him to mental struggle to improve himself morally. But every one can see that this self-treatment is powerless to secure the complete reform of the prisoner.

Humane treatment is necessary in order not to destroy or degenerate his vitality. At the same time, we must never forget that according to the immutable law of our being, every penalty entails suffering without which man will never apply himself to the practice of virtue for which his natural inclination is so feeble. By it he will see it is for his own interest to become good that the suffering may cease.

Finally, it is necessary that the condemned endure suffering in order that the punishment may be withdrawn. He should not be treated with cruelty, but he should feel the pain. I will say that the reformation of the guilty, considered in itself, is a thing to be regarded as sacred and the surest guaranty of public security, but it must not be forgotten that it can not be the direct end of punishment, however desirable it may be. Society should aim above all to repair the injury done by crime, and for that purpose it can do nothing better than to proportion each penalty to each crime. During the execution of the sentence as much as possible should be done to reform the prisoner, but when the term is ended society no longer has the right to retain the guilty in prison until his reformation, otherwise society becomes an agent for morals and education only. Proportion between offenses and penalties would then be impossible, since even for the smaller offenses, if the delinquent is not reformed, he might be retained in prison for years and perhaps always, and on the contrary, after some months or even weeks the greatest criminals could be discharged if they show by their conduct they had reformed. That some endeavor to correct delinquents during their sentence and prevent relapses is very well, but to go farther would be to misunderstand the character and limits of the punishing power of society.

But even in thus placing penitentiary reform upon a true basis and within true limits, a grave and final question remains to be answered. With all this help can we reach the reform of the criminal?

A man, although a criminal, does not cease to be a man. He is then subject, as well as the man generally regarded as honest, to the proper laws of human nature. I recall with tender emotion what was said to me some years ago at Christiania by an excellent director of the prison, loved by all who knew him—Mr. Petersen. "They speak to me of criminals," said he. "I am a criminal myself; for if I sound the depths of my soul I see there, in germ, the same crimes which are punishable in prisons. Only education, religion, the love of good, the struggle against self, have prevented the germs from developing and producing bad fruit." What Mr. Petersen said, each of us, if he is sincère with himself, is obliged to say. Then the treatment to apply to the reform of the prisoner is at the bottom the same as for the moral amendment of the free man, but there it is necessary to apply them more rigorously and with energy on account of the greater obstacles arising from vicious tendencies and inveterate habits.

For the efficient treatment of every malady three things are necessary. First, that there be a remedy having intrinsic curative powers. It then follows that there should be a qualified physician who can apply the remedy to the individual case, and finally that the sick should accept the remedy. Without these conditions no cure is possible.

Now the same thing occurs in case of the morally diseased. For the criminal the first efficient remedy is to arouse the conscience. In this he is aided by the recollection of his offense and made to feel how repulsive is crime and how beautiful is a virtuous life. This aids him to eradicate those vicious tendencies that result in crime, and to approach the ideal of a better life. In this movement is the essence of the remedy and secret of reform. Then follows improvement of the morals, which is best promoted by religion, of which all men who know little or much of prisons and prisoners know the beneficial influence. The physician is, above all, the director of the prison, and he ought to be. Entering with a loving and devoted spirit the place of each convict, seeking to possess his confidence, laboring with each according to his disposition; better than any one else he can contribute to the awakening of the conscience. The pivot of prison reform is a good personal direction. But the most essential and difficult thing is that the diseased—that is to say, the prisoner—shall consent to take the remedy. If he will not take it, the fault will not be in the remedy nor in the physician, but in the patient himself. We build prisons, but what is most difficult is to introduce in them the spirit of penitence. For in the spirit of man—above all, of the man thoroughly degenerate—there is such a strength of resistance to reformatory influences that the best efforts fall as upon granite.

Whatever, then, may be the perfections of any prison system that can be conceived, it is impossible to say in an absolute manner that it will secure the reform of the prisoner, because there must be a responsive action in his own nature for which a good prison system prepares the ground, but no human power can of itself work the cure.

Now as a good general, having met great resistance from the height of the fortress he has attacked, seeks to enter by a more accessible passage, this inward resistance which is met in consummate criminals has in these days aroused concentrated efforts for the reformation of the young, it being more easy to arrest vice before it has become crime. In this generation there has been an evolution in penal science analagous to that in medicine. Formerly the physicians treated only the exterior morbid phenomena and applied the remedy to the surface, not preventing the reappearance of the disease. Then began the study into its causes and sources, and the search for suitable remedies. But in time it was noticed that the source of the disease was often from within, and the consequence of habitual illtreatment of the organization in defiance of its natural laws and sickly tendencies, hereditary or acquired. They then occupied themselves in devising a more rational régime to maintain or establish the normal

and just equilibrium of each force, of each faculty, and of each organ. Medicine thus gravitates now to hygienic principles. The same evolution applies to the idea of reform as connected with the punishment of the guilty. At first only the gravity of the injurious results of crime was considered, and they inflicted corresponding material punishments, cutting off the hand of the robber or decapitating the murderer. Passing later to consider in each case the circumstances of the crime and the degree of guilt chargeable to the criminal, they began to proportion the severity of the punishment to each case and to each individual. They thought finally to occupy the time of imprisonment for the moral reform of the prisoner; and hence arose penitentiary reform. At present, seeing the difficulty of the reform of adults, they strive to correct the vicious youth before they become offenders. Thence comes the development of progress in these later days in houses of reform. Behold thus hygiene in penology, which tends to render the employment of remedies less necessary.

The tendency of modern legislation towards the mitigation of punishments requires more energetic action for prevention. In reform schools lies the hope for the moral reform of the dangerous classes. I dare hope that prison reform, if it shall produce no other benefits, will do immense good by leading many eminent men to direct their efforts to the reformation of criminal youth.

In the mean time we should not neglect to do all that may be to reform the guilty whose sentence has expired. Whatever importance is attributed to hygiene the physician who does not aim to prevent disease, and who does not wish to treat the sick, however incurable the disease, is not a good physician.

First, the means employed to reform the criminal does not always fail. There are some prisoners who reform themselves and there are sick who heal themselves.

Besides, should we renounce all efforts for reform when we can not always succeed? As long as there is life there is hope, and this hope should never be renounced. Moral improvement is ordinarily very slow, but the true aim of all progress is not to reach the end at once, but consists in a constant advance. The regenerating inspiration which has made suffering an instrument of moral redemption is born of love. And love is never discouraged. When we succeed in producing with a few only of the hardened criminals a real abhorence of evil and love for the good, do you believe it would be time lost?

It is no small matter to impress on the most degraded of society this principle, superior to all differences of nationality, customs, and opinions, to which all hearts aspire: the moral redemption of man and of humanity.

But this moral redemption began in the world by a power from on high. We should then have faith that a day will come when evil will be vanquished, when truth, justice, and love shall reign here below for the consolation of this poor earth.

RUSSIA AND THE CONGRESS, BY MR. RANDALL.

In the general assembly, June 22, Mr. Randall addressed the congress, expressing the sentiments of the Government and people of America towards the International Prison Congress. He assured the congress of the sympathy of the United States in this work, and the best wishes of the American people for the success of this reunion. He expressed his regret that the penal and reformatory institutions of his country were not represented in the Exposition by exhibits that would have reflected credit upon them. The reason given for this omission was mainly the great distance that separates Russia from America. But the interest felt by the United States Government was so great that it had sent the speaker as a delegate to make an extended report of the work and projects of the congress, and had also instructed

its minister, the Hon. Charles Emory Smith, to attend the sessions as a delegate. Some extracts only are made from this address:

We are [said Mr. Randall] especially gratified that this gathering has assembled in St. Petersburg, for Russia and the United States have always maintained most friendly relations. Russia in a special manner manifested her good will and contributed the aid of her powerful influence at a time when our national existence was imperiled. We shall never forget it, for its memory is too deeply graven upon our hearts.

The opinions which prevail in Russia upon prison and reformatory questions are well known and appreciated in America, and if we rightly estimate the advance in that direction, and the work accomplished under the humane supervision of Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, the distinguished director of the general administration of prisons, we may feel assured of the entire success of the efforts put forth in Russia for progress in penal reform.

The United States has done much for penitentiary science. It has given to Europe the Pennsylvania and Auburn systems, so much introduced in European prisons, and it has originated many methods that have gone into legislation.

In the work of the International Prison Congresses the United States has also contributed the labors of the distinguished Dr. E. C. Wines, without whose initiative these congresses would never have been held. We should never forget in each re-union to recall the memory of Dr. Wines, his life and work.

I take pleasure in assuring you that the study of penology continues to attract interest in America, and is pursued with ardor and ability by eminent specialists. The General Government of the United States has no special prison system. All who are convicted of crime against the General Government undergo punishment in the various prisons belonging to the States. The United States Congress is now in session, and the House of Representatives has already passed a bill which is now in the Senate, providing for the construction of three Government prisons, in which shall be confined those convicted of offenses against the laws of the General Government.[1] It is to be hoped that one of the results of such a system will be the establishment of an approximate uniformity of punishments.

In the report I shall present to my Government I shall not omit to make mention of the numerous and interesting reports presented to this congress, of its deliberations, of its statistical labors regarding correctional establishments, and of the admirable exposition under the direction of the commission of organization.

The United States is par excellence the land of reform and progress, and should unite with all other nations in advancing the progress of prison reform.

Mr. Randall closed by extending the congratulations and good wishes of the Government and people of the United States, and in expressing his conviction that the success of the Congress of St. Petersburg was well assured. His address was warmly applauded, and upon its conclusion the secretary-general moved:

1. That Mr. Randall be requested to present in his report to the Government of the United States the thanks of the congress for its good will and coöperation.

2. To request the bureau of the congress to transmit to the National Prison Association of the United States its grateful appreciation of its works and achievements, and to assure it that this congress preserves a sacred memory of the venerated Dr. Wines.

3. To express to the Rev. F. H. Wines and Mr. Rounds the regrets of the congress for their absence.

These several motions were unanimously adopted.

[1] This bill became a law.

RESOLUTIONS VOTED BY THE CONGRESS.

SECTION I.—LEGISLATIVE.

Answer to question 1.

1. Treaties of extradition being strictly dependent on the special penal legislation of the different countries, and these enactments at the present time being irreducible to a single type, it would be useless to attempt to introduce in an international convention the names of uniform criminal acts, or a definition of facts which can not be identical.

2. It would be desirable that special penal legislation should adopt the principle of extradition as a general rule, with all the reservations by which each state would find it necessary to restrict it.

3. The exception tending to become the rule, if extradition were adopted in principle by special legislation, international conventions upon extradition could change procedure, and in place of enumeration of criminal acts incurring extradition, they could include the enumeration of criminal acts which would not be the subject of extradition.

The congress expresses the opinion that a study should be made by a common agreement between criminalists of different countries, in view of giving the same denomination and a precise definition to violations of penal law which would be punished by extradition.

Answer to question 2.

1. The state of intoxication, considered in itself, would not constitute an offense. It gives occasion for repression only in the case where it publicly manifests itself in conditions dangerous to personal safety or by acts of a nature to produce scandal or to disturb peace and public order.

2. The usefulness of legislative provisions can not be denied in establishing coercive measures such as confinement in an asylum or a workhouse in regard to persons habitually given to drunkenness who would become a burden upon public charity or private benevolence, and who would give themselves up to a life of beggary or become dangerous to themselves and others.

3. It is desirable to make the proprietors of wine and liquor shops penally responsible for the sale of strong drink to individuals manifestly under the influence of liquor.

4. In case of penal offenses committed while in the state of intoxication:

The state of incomplete intoxication can not in any case exclude responsibility. As a circumstance having influence on the measure of punishment, this state can not be defined by the legislative authority either as a mitigating or aggravating circumstance. Its influence on the measure of punishment depends upon the circumstances of each particular case.

The state of complete intoxication excludes responsibility as a principle, with the following frequent exceptions:

(*a*) When intoxication forms in itself a penal offense, and

(*b*) In case of actions "liberæ in causa" when the author gets drunk knowing that when in a state of intoxication he might or could commit a criminal offense; in the first case, he makes himself responsible for an offense committed with premeditation; in the second case for an offense committed by negligence.

Answer to question 3.

1. The congress is of the opinion that the teaching of penitentiary and criminal science is very useful and much to be desired, and that the scientific study of the application of punishments can easily be reconciled with the requirements of penal discipline.

2. It expresses the view that a chair of penal science should be established in the universities of different countries and that the penal administration should create necessary facilities to sustain and encourage that study.

3. It is of the opinion that the establishment of libraries of penal science in prisons and for the use of officers of these institutions is desirable.

Answer to question 4.

Mr. Sloutchevsky, assistant reporter, submitted the following questions:

1. Can defects which are attributed to short imprisonments be removed by improving the execution of the punishments?

2. If these defects can not be removed by the means above mentioned, could they be usefully replaced—

(*a*) By administration or

(*b*) By conditional condemnation?

3. Is conditional condemnation admissible—

(*a*) For misdemeanors or

(*b*) For crimes?

4. In the definition of criminal acts which ought to be punished by a conditional condemnation, is it not necessary that the legislator have in view the interests of social security and those of the injured party, as well as the public conscience of a retribution merited by every action disturbing legal order?

After a discussion in the first section and in the general assembly the congress has decided to reserve the question.

Answer to question 5.

Upon the report of Mr. Drill, and after a discussion, the section adopted the following resolutions:

1. It will be necessary to omit the question of guilt and of discernment, as far as relates to children, that is to say, to individuals who

have not reached the age of 16 years, and to replace them by the following questions:

Has a child need of the protection of public authority?

Has it need of a simple education or a correctional régime?

2. The choice of measures ought to be determined by the incentives which induced the child to commit offense, and the gravity of this should be determined by the degree of his intellectual developments, by the surroundings in which he has been brought up, by his antecedents and character. The age of the child is also of great importance as an index to his normal condition.

3. The court decides upon the offenses committed by minors from 16 to 20 years of age. It should have the greatest liberty in the choice of punishments, when the minor is pronounced guilty, from a simple reprimand to the ordinary punishment provided for the criminal offense.

The general assembly decided to carry over this question to the next congress.

Answer to question 6.

In order to prevent the receiving of stolen goods it is necessary—

1. To enact in respect to certain dealers, such as bankers or money-changers, jewelers, and furniture dealers, some regulations to prevent the receiving of stolen goods.

2. To regard the receiving of stolen goods not as a case of complicity but as a special offense.

3. To establish a progressive increase of punishment for a repetition of this offense.

Answer to question 7.

1. Referring to the resolutions of the congress at Rome, showing that one of the means advised in order to counteract the deplorable consequences of an immoral training given by parents to their young children is to permit the courts to take away from the parents for a determined time all or part of the rights derived from parental power, when the facts, sufficiently verified, justify such a responsibility on their part, the fourth congress recognizes that the state has the right to ward off the pernicious influence of parents or guardians upon their children or wards.

2. The court, having proved the unworthiness or incapacity of the parents of a delinquent child, will fix at the age of majority the term of tutelary education which it will assign either to the house of correction, or a benevolent institution, or to public or private charity.

The initiative of measures tending to ward off or restrain paternal power will belong to public authority, judicial or administrative, as well as to the institutions above mentioned, in which the child would be confined.

3. The minor in whose favor a discharge from a penal or correctional institution may be granted before the end of the term of condemnation

or of correction will continue to remain under the same guardianship until the end of the term, unless there be need in such case for a special decision of the court.

4. The parents should be obliged to contribute according to their means to the expense of support and education of the children taken away by fault of the parents from their authority.

5. If the circumstances which have caused the warding off or restraining paternal power are changed in such a manner that the child can be restored to its parents without danger to its morality, a new judicial decision can reinstate the parents to the enjoyment of their right to the person of the child.

6. The congress deeming it above all more imperative to prevent the possibility of offenses by children than to take steps for correction where offenses have already been committed, and recognizing that this important consideration is beyond the wording of the seventh question, expresses the desire that the next congress should take up the study of the question whether it would not be useful to admit to the number of preventive means for offenses by children the right of public authority to oblige the parents of a child who is absolutely refractory to place it in an institution of learning.

Answer to question 8.

1. There is no occasion for withdrawing from the jurisdiction of ordinary courts offenses at common law committed by prisoners during their incarceration, of whatever kind they may be, save naturally the case where these offenses are threatened with a special punishment by the laws or regulations concerning order and discipline in the prison.

SECTION II.—PENAL.

Answer to question 1.

1. Labor useful and productive as possible being necessary for prisoners, to whatever penal régime they may be submitted, it is in each country proper to examine how, according to the situation, it can be practically furnished and directed in order to answer the rules and different necessities of penal work, whether by the system of labor for the state or by the contract system.

2. Labor being the important part of penal life should remain subject in its organization and its functions to public authority, which alone has the capacity of securing the execution of penal laws.

It could not then abandon prisoners to the promotion of private interests.

3. In a general manner, but without imposing absolute rules, the system of state labor seems to best facilitate the subordination of work, as of every other part of penal régime, to the end it designs to accomplish. But, on account of the difficulties that the organization of pub-

lic labor presents, it can be seen that the administration may resort to contracts or private industries, provided that the utilization of manual labor does not constitute the domination of a contractor over the person and life of the prisoner.

4. In the organization of prison labor and especially in that of labor for the state, it is desirable that the advantages of prison manual labor be reserved to the state, and the view is expressed that the state be consequently, as far as possible, at the same time, producer and consumer of objects manufactured by prison manual labor.

Answer to question 2.

1. Being under strict obligations to make the prisoners work, it is inevitable and necessary that their manual labor produce as useful results as it should in a free life.

Nevertheless the work of prisoners, if it is organized with discretion under the control of an administration that should be always master of regulating conditions, seems only able to constitute in respect to free labor a competition of little importance.

It would seem after all that this competition can not be made justly the subject of complaint when the question is either of agricultural labor in the interest of the public, having the advantage of avoiding the depreciation of field laborers, or of industrial labor for the benefit of prisons, or for other public services on behalf of the state.

In a more special manner and without intending to fix absolute regulations, it is thought best to recommend:

(1) That manual labor should be utilized as far as possible, and without doing injury to the necessities of penal work, for the wants of the prisoner and for the use of the prison.

(2) That the advantages likely to result from this manual labor be reserved as far as possible to the state, and not contribute to the gains of the management of private enterprises.

(3) That the arrangement of the effective forces of each industry in a determined place, the choice of the variety and compensation of these industries, the disposition of salaries and schedules of work, be so combined as not to allow protection, privileges, or abusive forces to be constituted, capable of depressing corresponding free industries.

(4) That public authority always preserve in some manner of organization of work, whatever it may be, the means of warding off every abusive competition which arises without reducing the prisoners to idleness and without abandoning them to the management or the power of contractors and certain industries.

Answer to question 3.

1. A system of reward and encouragement, material and moral, for the prisoners, fixed by regulation at the discretion of the administration,

is efficient in the interest of good discipline as well as reform of prisoners.

2. The measures indicated should be a reward for assiduity in work and of good conduct as far as may be without prejudice to the serious character and purpose of punishment.

3. It is proper to give the greatest scope to all lawful means of encouragement and reward, such as hope of shortening sentence, authority to buy books, to send aid to their families, etc.

4. In the way of material encouragement, the authorization of better food is admissible, which, without assuming the character of luxury, appears beneficial in a hygienic view.

5. The prisoner can be authorized to make use, for his material and moral needs, of a share of his earnings in a measure limited by general regulations and at the discretion of the director of the institution in each special case.

6. The part of the competence reserved should be intrusted at the time of the liberation of the prisoner to the authorities of societies of patronage, who would charge themselves with making payments to the prisoner by installments in proportion to his needs.

7. Disposition by the prisoner of his patrimony outside of his competence can be allowed as a means of satisfying his wants in prison only by the authorization of the director.

Answer to question 4.

1. In the infliction of penalties intended at the time to punish the guilty, to place him beyond the possibility of wrong doing, and to give him means to reinstate himself, and the punishments of long duration permitting more than others the hope of the reformation of the condemned; the organization of these punishments should be inspired by principles of *reform*, which regulate punishments of short duration.

2. Every convict condemned to a punishment of long duration should be placed at first in a cell for a certain time.

3. After the time in a cell, day and night, has expired, when the condemned can be admitted to work in common during the day, he should continue to be confined in the cell during the night.

4. The administration should organize work, as far as possible, in the open air and in preference public work, but on the indispensable condition that this work will be established in such a manner that the prisoners will never come in contact with the free population.

5. Conditional liberation will be awarded only with every possible discretion and in following a gradation agreeing with the reform of the prisoner.

6. Patronages should be established, either by private initiative or by the administration, to protect the condemned during the time of their conditional liberation and to watch over them after their definite discharge while they do not seem completely reformed.

The congress expresses the view that the question on life punishment should be put in the order of the day for the next congress.

Answer to question 5.

1. It is of the highest importance for the interests of prison work to insure well the recruitment of officers, employés, and agents of the prison service.

2. With regard to the manner of pursuing that course it is necessary to distinguish between the higher and lower offices.

3. It is important in the first place to determine the conditions of admission to these positions. The following should be delegated by preference: To higher offices persons in possession of the general information which the offices require; to lower offices, as far as possible, old soldiers who have finished their obligatory service.

4. The preparation of candidates for the highest offices will include—

(*a*) Certain courses of study and of the theory of penal science;

(*b*) And the practical study of every detail of prison work, directed by the chiefs of model prisons: The course finished, the candidates in question will be registered on the lists presented to the administration qualified to make the appointments.

5. The preparatory instruction for candidates to the lower offices will include above all practical penal work which will correspond, for example, with the instruction of guardian schools operating in certain countries, this service being directed by experienced prison superintendents in the same places in the department in which the candidate will enter upon his duties.

6. It is essential to guaranty the officials emoluments and advantages corresponding to the importance of the work, so honorable and so difficult, which they are carrying on for the good of society. An extreme parsimony could only be detrimental in every respect.

Answer to question 6.

(1) Without admitting that in a penal and penitentiary point of view there may be criminals or delinquents absolutely incorrigible, experience shows that in fact there are certain individuals who prove themselves insensible to this reformatory influence, and who return, by force of habit as well as by profession, to the violation of the laws of society. The congress expresses the opinion that especial measures should be taken against such individuals.

(2) In this order of thought, without directing attention to the principles of different legislatures, and reserving the liberty to choose the means corresponding best to particular conditions of each state, the following measures are recommended for study in different countries:

(*a*) Imprisonment, for a sufficient time; in institutions or workhouses where compulsory labor is required is applicable to certain individuals, as beggars, inveterate vagabonds, etc.

(*b*) Prolonged imprisonment or, according to the case, transportation to certain territories or possessions belonging to interested countries, in order to utilize lost forces; but always with guaranties that should insure support for those who are deprived of their liberty and a possibility of regaining entire liberty by good conduct, especially according to the system of conditional liberation.

These measures should not be prejudicial to placing in special institutions of assistance persons adjudged incapable of providing for themselves materially by their work.

Answer to question 7.

1. It is desirable that special prisons be established for preventive detention as far as it is possible; otherwise that a special part of the institution be designated for the imprisonment of the accused.

2. Individual separation should be adopted as a general rule for preventive detention, and be replaced by imprisonment in common during the day upon the expressed desire to that effect by the prisoner if judicial or administrative power authorizes it.

3. Individual separation should also be applied to minors when they are in a state of detention; it will only be ordered in case of absolute necessity, and it is desirable in principle that minors under 17 years of age should enjoy liberty until authority decides definitely upon their condition.

4. Individual separation should be replaced by imprisonment in common for prisoners who can not endure close confinement because of their health, on account of their advanced age, or physical or mental condition.

5. The prisoners should be treated on the basis of common law. Preventive detention should only involve restrictions required to accomplish its purpose and the desire to maintain order in the prison.

6. Local administration can be made available in respect to prisoners only by such measure of discipline as is provided by regulations and restrictions necessary to maintain order and tranquillity.

7. The supervision of societies of patronage organized for discharged criminals should also extend to persons after acquittal.

Answer to question 8.

It is desirable that all prisoners should receive work corresponding as far as possible to their capacity; the diversity and comparative facility of certain work are not contrary to the demands of a rational penal theory.

Answer to question 9.

The progressive system which begins with cellular confinement with labor corresponds to the nature of punishments of medium duration.

Answer to question 10.

If the progressive system for prisoners of a long term is accepted, it would be possible and also desirable to make them work in open air, provided they are separated from free laborers. This work can be organized in the country, or even in the confines of the city.

Answer to question 11.

The congress expresses the view:

(*a*) That international penal statistics should be prepared for each session of congress.

(*b*) That this work should be intrusted to the penal administration of the countries in which congress might meet.

(*c*) That the investigations should treat of the second year which follows that of the former congress.

(*d*) That the tables annexed to the report of Mr. Beltrani-Scalia should be admitted in principle as a basis of these international statistics.

(*e*) That the publication should be accompanied by a report analyzing the results shown, and making known the state of penal statistics in different countries.

SECTION III.—PREVENTIVE MEANS.

Answer to question 1.

The congress expresses the opinion:

1. That societies of patronage should be established wherever they do not now exist, and that relations between societies of patronage or societies of benevolence in different countries should be established in the general interest of works of patronage, and also in order to bring aid in the most efficient manner to persons needing patronage.

2. That to this end conventions should be established between different societies which should have for their aim:

(*a*) To insure a regular and reciprocal exchange of experience.

(*b*) To set forth the principle that patronage should extend to foreigners; regarding always the police regulations of each country.

(*c*) To insure the return home of discharged prisoners, if they so desire, or to secure them work in another place.

3. That in view of their return home special supervision should be taken of their earnings, their clothing, and discharge papers, and their free passage.

4. In the aim of facilitating the establishment of an institution of international patronage, it is desired that societies of patronage which exist in all countries should be united in creating a central national organ.

Answer to question 2.

1. The unity of interests which exists, and of questions which are proposed between administrations charged with penal services, and of

police on one side, of public or private services of assistance, and of benevolence on the other, requires a harmony between different institutions, a harmony conformed to the needs of each country.

2. To give more force to this understanding, it is desirable that there should be created societies, congresses, or conferences, in which will be united representatives of such societies.

3. It is especially desirable that the state define by law or by ordinance the obligations intrusted, under reserve of their rights and of their initiative, to societies or public or private establishments, especially in what concerns the administration of the competence of liberated children, in every case, as well as adults, if they need patronage.

4. To facilitate the mission which is incumbent on societies of patronage, it is desirable that the state, the province, the community, or private societies erect and support workhouses.

Answer to question 3.

1. The congress expresses the desire to see generalized, in their different forms of application, the work of children morally abandoned and measures of protection and of education for unfortunate childhood.

2. In accordance with experience, it would be necessary to combine the system of placing in families with that of placing in institutions, the two systems considered separately presenting advantages and disadvantages.

3. Everywhere it is expedient in endeavoring to conduct the interests of the institutions to remove them as far as possible from systems termed "congregate," and to organize them after the principle of family education—that is to say, after the cottage system.

4. The placing in families can be permitted, especially in the following cases:

(*a*) For the youngest children, especially girls not morally compromised and of a healthy constitution.

(*b*) For children morally neglected or guilty, after a sufficient lapse of time, when they will have been improved or corrected in an institution.

(*c*) For children whose correctional education is finished and who are still under patronage.

5. For the interest of education in families it is recommended that free organizations of education or societies of patronage or competent committees established by public authority should make it their study—

(*a*) To make a judicious choice of the family in which they can intrust the children.

(*b*) To direct these families.

(*c*) To supervise their education.

(*d*) To regulate supervision after established principles.

6. It would be desirable that on one side the heads of houses of education, and on the other side the committees of family education of

each district, should establish between themselves a cordial understanding, in order to be able to exchange protegés and to combine thus the two kinds of education after the individual needs of the latter.

Answer to question 4.

1. It is recommended that societies of patronage should have the opportunity to become interested in the situation of the families of prisoners before they have recovered their liberty—

(*a*) In order to insure, as much as possible, the maintenance of family affections.

(*b*) In order to aid especially the family of the prisoner if his detention has caused serious detriment to minors, the old, or the infirm.

2. To attain this end the societies of patronage should mention it expressly in their statutes, and place themselves in connection with every local authority, administrative or religious.

Answer to question 5.

1. The congress expresses the opinion that besides concerning itself with individuals in a state of conditional or definitive liberation, who are placed under the patronage of a society, this society should also exert itself in an energetic and direct manner, with the coöperation of police service.

2. It considers as a real impediment to patronage, as an obstacle to every renewal of work, and consequently as a fatal cause of relapse in discharged criminals, revelations concerning them which could be very easily made to private individuals of information contained in judicial files, or found in the hands of the police.

3. It is also essential that police service should not go to patrons or directors of institutions, to demand information of the conduct and work of persons placed after their liberation under the patronage of societies, said societies remaining responsible to public authority.

This opinion extends to patronage of reformed girls.

Answer to question 6.

In order to interest the public in penal and preventive questions, it is desirable:

1. That ministers of different religions should coöperate in this work by devoting a Sunday in addressing their congregations in regard to prisoners.

2. That the support of the press should be given to the solution of these questions.

3. That competent men should organize conferences, and publish special articles upon the questions of public interest mentioned.

4. That members of every social class should join patronage or prison aid societies.

CLOSING OF THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY.

The closing session of the congress was held in the hall of the palace of the nobility at 11 o'clock, June 24, under the presidency of Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy. The Prince d'Oldenburg and the princess occupied the imperial section, accompanied by Mmes. Chérémétiew and Naryschkine and others of their suite. After the completion of the ordinary business of the day the president made his closing address, as follows:

GENTLEMEN: The session of to-day is, as you know, the last of the present congress; and thanks to your zeal there only remains one question to discuss, the fifth of the first section upon legislation concerning childhood, which awaits your decision. But I am convinced by exchange of opinions this question will require more profound study, and I believe it will be more prudent to refer it to the next congress. The discussions which have taken place on this question will appear in the acts of the congress and will furnish material worthy our attention without requiring us to decide now when there is such a divergence of opinion in our assembly, which shows that the question is not yet sufficiently discussed.

This proposition being approved, I pass to another question of a very different character, but of more considerable importance. I mean the choice of a place for the coming session of the Fifth International Prison Congress. I have been informed, though confidentially, that the Government of the French Republic is disposed to receive the future congress in Paris. I await, then, the expression of your sentiments that I may convey the same to that Government. [Unanimous approbation is given.]

In congratulating you, gentlemen, on the striking unanimity of your choice for the location of the next congress, I request my eminent and cherished colleague, Mr. Herbette, to please present to the Government of France our sentiments in this respect.

In response Mr. Herbette spoke as follows:

GENTLEMEN: Permit me to say how highly we appreciate the words pronounced by the president and the sentiments he has expressed. If some of our colleagues have hoped that their country would have been honored with the next congress, which has been so graciously offered to us, we sincerely regret their disappointment. But we can not refuse to give testimony to our devotion and loyalty to prison work. If you consider that the designation of Paris responds most fully to the general wish, I sincerely hope that your request will be deferred to.

Certainly you know how difficult it will be to receive the succession which is offered us after the *eclat* and brilliancy that the Government of His Imperial Majesty has given to this congress. But the hospitality of Paris will fortify and not efface the memory of our reception in St. Petersburg. Instead of refusing the succession, with the obligations which follow, you are assured that, so far as it depends on us, far from declining it, it will be accepted with the most cordial gratitude.

The president then renewed his discourse, saying:

GENTLEMEN: It now remains for me to accomplish the most agreeable duty, to express to you our gratitude for the active part you have taken in the work of the congress, securing for it the most complete success possible. The memory of your valuable and efficient labors will remain forever engraved on our memory, and the transactions of this congress will transmit the truth of this to the latest times.

To work with you, gentlemen, offers a double advantage, if I may use the term; first, to find in you such love for the work in which we are engaged and desire for good results; and, secondly, the satisfaction that lies in the personal acquaintances we form which has the special charm of being certain and sincere.

These, gentlemen, are the reasons which will perpetuate the grateful memory which animates, without exception, all Russian hearts.

May you, gentlemen, whom I address as dear friends and colleagues, equally retain a pleasant memory, on returning to your own countries, recalling distant Russia and your sojourn with us. It is with this wish, which I express from the depths of my heart, that I declare closed the session of the Fourth International Prison Congress of St. Petersburg.

Mr. Herbette spoke again at some length, and at the close he was made the organ of the congress to request of Prince d' Oldenburg that he present to His Majesty the Emperor and Her Majesty the Empress the profound gratitude of the congress.

On the rising of the congress, Prince and Princess d' Oldenburg descended from the imperial section and spent some time socially with the members and assured them that their friendly sentiments should be faithfully presented to the Emperor and Empress.

CLOSING OF THE FIRST SECTION—PENAL.

The closing scenes of the three sections in their several halls were quite interesting to the members. Coming together from twenty-six different nations, comparatively unacquainted, but with one purpose—the discussion of questions of vital interest to society—the meetings had all been in the best spirit and the discussions had been marked by earnest yet friendly debate. Personal acquaintances were formed which promise to be enduring and profitable to the cause which brought them about.

The final session of the first section—penal—was held on the 21st of June, opening at 9 o'clock a. m., under the presidency of Mr. Pols. The time was principally occupied in concluding the discussion on questions not before disposed of and adopting conclusions to be referred to the general assembly.

After this business had been disposed of the president, Mr. Pols, in moving and eloquent terms thanked the section for its coöperation in the good work which had been accomplished and for having solved questions of so much importance. He likewise thanked the reporters and assistant reporters, who, by their fruitful and intelligent labors, had aided to such a useful extent in presenting theses on the various reports. He ended by requesting that resolutions be adopted expressing the thanks of the section to the secretaries for the efficient manner in which they had discharged their duties. This was agreed to. The discourse was warmly applauded.

Mr. Golovine, secretary, responded, thanking for himself and his colleagues the section for the honor extended; and Mr. Neklioudow, in behalf of the section, expressed his warmest gratitude to Mr. Pols, the president, for the able and impartial manner in which he had presided during the different sessions.

After the exchange of these complimentary sentiments the president declared the first section of the Fourth International Prison Congress closed.

CLOSING OF THE SECOND SECTION—REFORMATORY.

The reformatory, or second section, closed its labors on the 21st of June, under the presidency of Mr. Goos, who spoke in substance as follows:

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: The programme of the work of the second section has been exhausted. I congratulate you upon this result. At the Congress of Rome we were not so fortunate. We were then obliged to refer to this congress several important questions. I believe this action was not well received. By our achievements on the present occasion the section has proved its corrigibility and has secured its reformation. I dare say that this result has been reached without injuring in any way the real value of our work. I believe I can prove that our labor has not only been constant, but that it has been useful and productive. The honor of this is due to the zeal of all the members of the section; to the eminent speakers who have addressed us in the course of our discussions; to the conscientious reporters who have submitted their conclusions, and to the subcommittees. To all I address the thanks of the presidency. I have yet some other thanks to express. It is not proper for a section to express the deepest gratitude which we all feel for the grand hospitality which has been extended to us by this great city, this great Empire and its Government. This duty will be discharged in the general assembly. Hence I abstain. But it is my agreeable duty to address, first, my sincere thanks to the vice-presidents, who with extreme kindness have taken the chair when necessary, and who in many cases have assisted by their wise counsels. I especially address my thanks to Vice-President Senator Blanc, who presided at one of the most laborious sessions, discharging the duties in so happy a manner.

In the second place I tender my warmest thanks to the secretaries of our section, whose kindness to me has been touching; but what is of higher importance, they have filled their necessary and fatiguing positions with zeal, good will, and intelligence that are above eulogy. Certainly all members will join in this tribute.

And now, ladies and gentlemen, I declare the second section of the Fourth International Prison Congress closed.

The secretary of the section, Baron Taubé, responded for himself and his assistants, thanking the president for the honor extended, and concluding in these words:

We will all cherish the memory of having had the honor of participating in the labors of the Fourth International Prison Congress, a work so fruitful and so humane.

CLOSING OF THE THIRD SECTION—PREVENTIVE.

This session closed June 21. The writer was one of the vice-presidents of the second section, but was inscribed on the rolls of the third, which he attended. The work of this section was at least equal to any in interest. Here the great and more especially modern questions regarding the prevention of crime were most fully discussed. The president was Mr. Jagemann, who was peculiarly and highly qualified for the position. A ready debater, thoroughly informed on the subjects considered, conversant with the methods of conducting the sessions, fluent in the use of the French as well as of his own language, he greatly facilitated the labors of the section.

At the close he spoke as follows:

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: I had intended to prepare a closing address, but I have been unable to do so. The honors they have heaped upon us and the festivals and

pleasures they have bestowed on us have taken all my time. But the simple words which I have the honor to address to you are those of sincerity and from the heart, which makes them the best language. I am moved with lively satisfaction that we have adopted conclusions for the various questions of the programme referred to this section, and with a gratitude without limit to you all.

Our section has had the particular compliment of having confided to it the dearest interests of religion and humanity, the social duties of charity, and benevolence with the prevention of crime. That which prevents crime renders the most important service. In this noble task of which I speak we enjoy the special advantage of the assistance of ladies in this section.

The conclusions adopted by this section are free from fanaticism and idealism. They have had in view only the true needs based on experience. All our propositions have been approved by the general assembly. There only remains the last question to approve. The good results of our sessions are due to you all, and I thank you for your confidence and your indulgence. But there are in your midst some gentlemen who deserve special mention. In the first place, we should not forget the excellent preparation for the congress by the commissioners of organization, and in throwing a retrospective glance over our work we particularly regret the absence of our venerated vice-president, Mr. Voisin, who has been, so to speak, the editor-general of our theses, to which he has given the benefit of his intelligence and experience. Our reporters have supported our propositions before the general assembly with great success. But if we are asked who has done the most work, it is impossible not to designate the secretary of the section, Mr. Tsékhanovetsky, on account of the zeal and devotion which distinguish him and his fellow-workers. It is the work behind the scenes, which you do not see. But I, who have been behind the scenes, have seen and appreciated it. While we have been attending banquets and excursions, when we were admiring the wonders of St. Petersburg, Mr. Tsékhanovetsky and his colleagues labored to dispose of our work. When our sessions are finished we are free, but it is then that for the secretary begins the most unremitting labor, a work which prolongs itself into the night, if we can speak of there being any night in St. Petersburg.

To you, ladies and gentlemen, I offer the sincerest gratitude of my heart. It will forever be a precious memory to me that I have labored in common with you and that I have added Russian friendship to the acquaintance previously formed at the congresses of Germany, Rome, Frankfort, and Fribourg, and I shall carry with me the pleasant recollection of a brilliant sojourn in the capital of this hospitable and generous country, where we have been accorded the most gracious reception.

Senator Theophile Roussel said:

In the absence of Mr. Felix Voisin, vice president of the third section, who would have expressed to the president, Mr. de Jagemann, the thanks of his countrymen, I have been requested by the French members of this section, in my capacity as dean and by virtue of my age, to present their thanks. Mr. de Jagemann has said that he feared the use of language other than his own would not permit him to fulfill his task as well as he desired. Since Mr. de Jagemann understands I am the interpreter of the French who are present, I do not offer him a commonplace compliment in avowing our unanimous opinion that it would be impossible to add to the perfect impartiality, the clearness, and the precision with which he has discharged the functions of president, and that he has used most skillfully and correctly the French language. This is why I am happy at this time and at the close of this section to discharge a duty in expressing to our excellent and honored president not only my personal gratitude, but also the sincere and cordial thanks of my countrymen.

M. Tsékhanovetsky, secretary of the section, then spoke as follows:

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: I have the honor to speak in the name of myself and my assistant secretaries. I do not speak to occupy your time, but to assure you of

our profound appreciation of the honor that you have done us by your approval and thanks. We are happy, gentlemen, to have been able to hear so many eminent gentlemen who have presented to us so many grand and noble ideas upon the good that may be done and the results yet to be accomplished in the work for the protection of suffering and unfortunate humanity.

We are all novices in the position of secretaries, and notwithstanding the good-will that animates us we may not have satisfied every member of the section. Intent on preserving the ideas and opinions of all for the good of the cause which has brought us together, we have done as well as we could and ask your indulgence. Permit us finally, gentlemen, to express our very sincere sentiments in heartily thanking our eminent president, Mr. de Jagemann, for the kind indulgence with which he has guided us in our task, and which has converted a serious duty into a pleasure. This, Mr. President, is not a simple formality; it is, I assure you, the sincere expression of high respect and gratitude.

Count Skarbek said:

It remains for us, ladies and gentlemen, to discharge the agreeable duty of thanking our honorable president for the remarkable manner in which he has guided these debates. It is certainly to his energy, to his talent, and to his delicacy that we owe in great part the satisfactory results we have reached and the full approbation of the general assembly.

Complimentary addresses were also made by Mr. de Epstein, Mr. Pierre de Messoiédow, and Count Khorinsky. Mr. de Jagemann closed the session, saying:

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: You have complimented me very much and I accept your kind regards with great satisfaction. I regret that the days of the congress have closed, but allow me to express a hope in saying, *Au revoir.*

This and the other addresses were warmly applauded. Space has been given such addresses since they throw much light upon the estimation in which the congress, its members, and its labors were held by representatives of different countries.

REVIEW.

One of the first questions naturally raised is, how does the congress of St. Petersburg compare with its predecessors; and the next is, what are the results of the last congress, and were they satisfactory in showing an advance movement? To compare the labors of the several congresses, the following statistical table is presented:

	The International Prison Congress of—			
	London, 1872.	Stockholm, 1878.	Rome, 1885.	St. Petersburg, 1890.
Total number of members	341	297	234	740
Residents of the country where the congress was held	192	155	141	563
States represented	24	26	25	26
Number of official delegates	76	45	48	69
Questions on the programme:				
First section—Penal	10	4	6	8
Second section—Reformatory	13	6	8	11
Third section—Preventive	5	4	8	6
Total	28	14	22	25

	The International Prison Congress of—			
	London, 1872.	Stockholm, 1878.	Rome, 1885.	St. Petersburg, 1890.
Number of preparatory works:				
First section—Penal	9	11	25	46
Second section—Reformatory	3	21	24	57
Third section—Preventive	4	17	18	36
Total	16	49	67	139
Questions on which congress indicated a solution:				
First section—Penal	2	4	5	7
Second section—Reformatory	8	6	5	11
Third section—Preventive	5	4	7	6
Total	15	14	17	24

The above table indicates the comparative numbers and labors of the different congresses. The questions discussed at the fourth congress were as interesting as any, and the ability shown in the preliminary addresses and in the discussions were equal to those of the former congresses. The value that each has had for the science of penology can not be measured or compared. That they have all been of special value in Europe in awakening interest in all questions pertaining to prisons can not be denied; nor can it be regarding the influence they will exert especially in the countries where the sessions were held. It will be noticed that in the fourth congress there were inscribed 563 Russians. Their names, residences, and vocations will be given in the official report of the congress. The public will then see there the highest representative names of the Empire. The state, the schools, the universities, the industries, the penal and reformative as well as the preventive institutions will be found well represented. The Russian Government in every way encouraged a large attendance of its educated citizens, specialists, etc. These representatives came from all parts of the Empire, and all interests were represented. During all the discussions there never appeared on the part of the Government or any Russians any attempt to interfere with the utmost freedom of discussion. The Government by its officers and delegates were always ready, in conversation or otherwise, to explain the features of the Russian prison system, which system they also very fully exhibited in the great exposition and in various prisons in Russia and in Finland. The presence in the congress of so many Russians and so many from western Europe taking part in the interviews and discussions must have had a marked influence on the Russian mind, and the good results of that influence will no doubt soon have much to do in advancing prison reform in the great empire. Then the foreign members returning to their various countries with new impressions, information, and experiences of themselves and others will impart their ideas there by reports or addresses, leading to reforms in construction, management, and, above all, prevention. The results of these congresses can not be weighed now, but their

silent influence for good will go on for many years to decrease crime and pauperism and lessen the expenses of the state.

The congress of St. Petersburg adopted conclusions on all the questions submitted excepting on the fifth question of the first section which was referred to the congress of Paris. There has been a growing tendency to discuss the various questions relative to dependent or delinquent children, and as there appeared much diversity of opinion on these questions in the penal section it was thought there should be a more extended discussion.

The fourth congress adopted its conclusions with peculiar prudence. There was shown in the discussions considerable difference in opinion between delegates from the various countries, and so the resolutions were made to conform as near as possible to the general opinion. This may explain the language of some conclusions which do not speak in a positive manner. This conservatism should inspire confidence in the conclusions.

Among the resolutions adopted was one of more than usual interest relative to incorrigibles. In the preliminary papers and in the addresses this subject received very considerable attention. The question of prison labor referred by the Third to the Fourth Congress was another question of great practical interest, which was very freely considered and a conclusion reached. But no questions were more fully discussed in the preliminary papers or in the debates in a more able manner than those of the third section relative to children. It is now admitted by all that the reduction of crime and pauperism can be best attained through the preventive method of caring for and educating dependent children and in caring for and reforming young delinquents. The many papers and addresses on these subjects are full of a vital and timely interest. The Fourth Congress has fruitfully contributed to the cause of the delinquent and dependent children. The congress fully and intelligently appreciated all questions it discussed pertaining to abandoned childhood and considered and decided them with solicitude and great interest. If the congress of St. Petersburg had been held for no other purpose than to discuss these preventive subjects it would have most fully compensated for all efforts made.

The child question will not down. It has come to stay. Where it has in all countries its true place, consideration, and disposition, it will no longer be said that poverty and crime increase in a greater ratio than the population, and it will be said, as it is truthfully said of Michigan to-day, that as population increases poverty and crime decrease. This is not utopian, because it has been proven true and may be again.

The public conference was a new and a successful innovation, and it will doubtless be repeated in 1895 at the Congress of Paris.

There were two things worthy of special commendation and congratulation. They were the constant cordiality which existed among the

members from different countries and the sincere gratitude of all members of the congress to the Russian government for the brilliant receptions and marked attentions constantly tendered them. It is very certain that the foreign delegates deeply appreciated all this kindness, so often, so constantly and kindly manifested, that they will always remember pleasantly their most agreeable sojourn in the great northern Empire and the beautiful days and twilight nights of June in St. Petersburg.

MR. HERBETTE AND HIS OPINIONS.

Mr. Louis Herbette, the chief of the French delegation, councilor of state, director of the prison administration of France, and president of the International Prison Commission, on his return to his country submitted a report of the congress to the minister of the interior. His long experience in prison administration, his voluminous reports and papers touching prison administration and penology generally, his extended labors for the advancement of the several international prison congresses, and his valuable and great labors therein have eminently fitted him for his present many duties and give special weight to his words relative to the object and labors of these congresses. His valuable report dated September 8, 1890, opens with some truthful and interesting opinions which are transferred in full to this report. His words are as follows:

The congresses as now constituted are successive reunions in different countries, in which competent persons meet to discuss the theory and practice of penal and reformatory questions, of which the programme has been prepared in advance. As near as may be the sessions meet once in five years.

They may include expositions, the object of which has been first determined and which will permit uniting theoretical discussions to written or oral explanations, a kind of object-teaching, an exact knowledge of the work or of the establishments verifying the methods followed in each country for each kind of service. This affords an opportunity to collect periodically, for common advantage, memoirs, works, and documents which would otherwise remain scattered and perhaps altogether unknown. They bring about personal acquaintances and a valuable exchange of views between men of all nations who devote themselves to such labors.

They are, we might say, free sessions of penal and penitentiary science. And it is by this struggle against evil, for the cause of civilization and humanity, that this association for study and peaceful emulation ought to profit.

If we consider the preparation of programmes, the preservation of archives, the arrangement, the unity, the necessary continuation for a work of this kind, the permanent intercourse which should be kept up between co-workers, the general direction of operations incident to each congress, the activity which should continue beyond the sessions, finally the persistence and generality of this penitentiary work, as conducted in different countries, we can easily conceive the necessity of a commission, a permanent agency which will guaranty the stability of the institution.

This is the province of the International Prison Commission, to which belong persons officially designated by the countries that consider it useful to labor in this work.

Without doubt official delegations or official missions can be permitted from any State to assist in the congress without joining in the acts of the international com-

mission. And it is no less optional for every administration to remain a stranger and be indifferent to the congress itself.

But by the extension of social science, by the rapid increase of relations between peoples, by the similarity or the unity of interests, by common research for solutions, certain questions daily become more national. No one can suppress this movement and it is natural that each nation should desire to participate in the discussion. The countries most solicitous for moral progress have from the beginning encouraged private initiative. But, the determination and execution of punishments being everywhere subject to public authority, it follows that the agents of power and the heads of the service should unite in the study of reforms which they seek to secure.

It is necessary to ask, if it belongs to the congress to request under the form of a vote to meet in a certain country, can this act of the government give effect to this vote? Also, if the general preparation for the congress falls to the commissioner, whether the methods and material conditions of organization are left to the local committees which are charged with this duty? Thus are clearly separated on one side the general character of the institution which responds to the operations of the international commission, and on the other side the proper organization of each congress on such material foundations, with such measures, and under such circumstances as are best secured by the local committees according to the convenience of the state which has been pleased to extend its hospitality.

It is in accordance with the above designs and aims that the congress of St. Petersburg was systematized, and, thanks to the care of the Imperial Government, its success has been complete.

In order to guaranty entire harmony of action, the office of president of the commission is conferred at the close of each congress upon a member who is an official delegate of the country where the next congress is to be held. The Russian delegate, Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, has been consequently president of the International Commission since 1885, and also received from his government the presidency of the commission of organization in St. Petersburg. It is not only a work of five years, but of fifty years, which has led to the international penitentiary work of this congress. Without going back further, it is just to recall the initiative of the men who, with the desire to debate among themselves the interesting problems of the reform of prisons, met in 1846 to the number of 75. They came from France as well as from Germany, from the United States as well as from England, from Belgium as well as from the Netherlands, from Switzerland, Russia, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. The debates continued for three days at Frankfort-on-the-Main. The proceedings were published in German and French.

There was a new reunion in 1847 in Brussells for three days, with nearly 200 members. The report is in French. A third session, projected for the next year in Switzerland or in Holland, was prevented, probably for political causes. The subject did not appear again for ten years, and then on the occasion of the International Conference of Charities at Frankfort-on-the-Main.

In reality it was not until 1872 that was opened the series of International Prison Congresses, such as have succeeded since in Europe with the aid of the governments and by official delegates. This desired renewal of international work was due to the initiative of the Rev. Dr. Wines, corresponding secretary of the Prison Association of New York.

OFFICIAL DISPATCH OF THE HON. CHARLES EMORY SMITH, UNITED STATES MINISTER TO RUSSIA, CONCERNING THE FOURTH INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS.

The Imperial Government of Russia having invited the American Government to partake in the deliberations of the International Prison Congress, the Department of State, in token of its appreciation of the object of the congress, and of its high respect for the Government of Russia, instructed the Hon. Charles Emory Smith, our minister resident at St. Petersburg, to attend the sessions as official delegate. Following this, the writer was appointed associate delegate with instructions to report to our minister, who was named as the chief of the delegation.

Minister Smith, in compliance with his instructions, attended the sessions during the continuance of the congress, and by his presence, influence, and labors did much to advance its interests. An extended report by him of the proceedings would have exhibited an extended knowledge of the objects and labors of the congress, and would have been read with interest in this country by many who would have profited by the perusal of his statements and observations. His knowledge of the subject, his ability as a writer, and his high official position would have commanded for him general attention. He was in full sympathy with the object of the congress and understood well the principles underlying the efforts of this great convention of specialists, and his views would have been influential in commanding favorable opinion. It is to be regretted that he has not said more. But his dispatch to the State Department is reproduced here, which, however brief, embodies much, and conveys to the reader quite a comprehensive view of the congress, its labors and results. The writer gratefully acknowledges the many courtesies and repeated assistance extended to him during the congress by Minister Smith, with whom he had the honor to be thus officially associated.

Mr. Smith to Mr. Blaine.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
St. Petersburg, July 3, 1890. (Received July 21.)

SIR: After a session of 9 days, the Fourth International Penitentiary Congress closed its regular work on Tuesday, the 24th ultimo, amid many mutual congratulations and expressions of good will. The conclusion of its formal labors was followed, upon the invitation of the Russian authorities, by an excursion of 3 days to Finland, and another of 4 days to Moscow. Mr. Randall participated in the former, and all of the American delegates in the latter, which ended yesterday.

The session of the congress is generally regarded as quite successful. In the fullness of its deliberations, in the practical character of its discussions, in the opportunity for a comparison of experience and progress in prison management and in the substantial unanimity of its conclusions, it realized the best expectations. Most of the delegates were men directly associated with penitentiary administration in the various countries, who brought the training and knowledge of experts to the consideration of the several questions embraced in the programme. It is not my province to make a detailed review or summary of the discussions and conclusions of the congress. That survey will be made by Mr. Randall in the report which, as the expert delegate, he will present to the Bureau of Education. But there were some features of the congress which will be of interest to the Department of State, and to which I may properly refer.

In the first place there was no discussion of the internal system or methods peculiar to any particular country, and no reference to any such subject. The questions submitted for the consideration of the congress were, under the usual practice, determined by the international penitentiary commission, which is a permanant body and which constituted the commission of organization. They were enumerated and defined in the proposed programme, which marked the scope and limits of the congress. The papers on the different topics which were the main theses of discussion were furnished and printed in advance, and the deliberations did not go outside of the proposed outline. There was no suggestion in any quarter of any attempt to invade the domain of policy or of administrative discipline, which each Government must reserve for itself. Whether the penal system in any country has phases which are open to criticism, or whether, irrespective of its general principle, there are faults in its practical application, were matters outside of the functions of the congress.

Even upon those questions which were treated as coming within the proper province of the congress it was recognized that the conclusions must be affected by the conditions existing within the different countries and that those conditions must be respected. This was true, for instance, as to the application of the contract system to prison labor, and as to the question whether prison labor should be directed to objects which would not involve competition with the free labor of surrounding communities. Among the questions considered were the character and requirements of legislation with reference to juvenile delinquents; the organization of instruction in penitentiary science; the principle and manner of suspending or discontinuing punishment involving conditional sentence; the treatment of incorrigible criminals; the method of dealing with intoxication and offenses growing out of it; the nature and variety of work to be adopted in prisons; the modes of assisting discharged prisoners and their families; the relation of charitable bodies; the correctional and reform systems; and the whole subject of preventive measures. Upon many of these questions the practical discussions with the information and comparisons which they elicited were of more value than the formal conclusions.

The declaration of the congress upon the subject of extradition may have special interest for the Department, and I append to this dispatch inclosure 1, the text of the question as submitted and a copy of the conclusions adopted, together with translations of the same. It will be seen that while the congress sanctions and supports the general principle of extradition, with all the reserve which each State must exercise for itself, it recognizes the difficulty of a uniform definition of crimes subject to extradition growing out of the differences of penal legislation; that, with a view to the advancement of a general agreement, it recommends the special enumeration in international conventions of offenses to which extradition will not be accorded, instead of the enumeration of those which are subject to extradition; and that it urges efforts towards a common agreement among writers on criminal law to the end of giving the same name and definition to violations of the law which should be subject to extradition.

The growing interest in questions of prison administration, science, and reform, will be indicated by certain comparative statistics of the several successive congresses

at London, Stockholm, Rome, and St. Petersburg, which, as taken from the bulletin of the congress, I inclose, marked 2.*

During the course of the congress Mr. Randall, as the expert delegate from the United States, took occasion to make some statements as to the progress of penitentiary and penal studies in our country, and, incidentally, as to its friendly attitude toward Russia. He expressed the sentiment of the United States towards the congress and its work, and explained why our prisons and correctional institutions were not represented in the exposition, which was chiefly due to the great distance. He remarked that the delegates of the United States were specially gratified that this congress had assembled at St. Petersburg, since the United States and Russia had always been bound together in the closest ties of friendship. Russia had attested her good will at a crisis when our national existence was at stake, and we could never forget her aid, for its memory was deeply engraved in our hearts. Mr. Randall added that the progress which Russia had made in penal science was known and appreciated in America. He referred briefly to the contributions which the United States had made to penitentiary reform and to the influential part which an American citizen, the lamented Dr. Wines, had borne in the original organization of the International Penitentiary Congress. He concluded by expressing the congratulations and good wishes of the American Government and people for the success of the congress. The paper of Mr. Randall, and especially the reference to the friendly relations of the United States and Russia, were received with emphatic marks of approval.

It was decided that the next congress should be held in Paris.

It only remains to add that the Russian Government and the municipalities of St. Petersburg and Moscow did everything possible for the comfort and pleasure of the delegates, and that their hospitality was as hearty as it was lavish and unstinted. By command of the Emperor the congress was entertained at a sumptuous dinner at the Winter Palace, and numerous other banquets testified to the cordial welcome and kindness of our Russian hosts.

I have, etc.,

CHAS. EMORY SMITH.

* The inclosures, No. 1 and 2, appear in the body of this report.

APPENDIX.

EXCURSIONS AND BANQUETS, MEMORIALS OF HOWARD, CONFERENCE IN GLASGOW, THE NEW PRISON IN ST. PETERSBURG, AND INTERVIEW WITH MR. KOMORSKY, IN PARIS.

HER ROYAL HIGHNESS,
PRINCESS EUGÉNIE MAXIMILIANOVNA D'OLDENBURG.

OF THE
BOMBAY
BRANCH
OF THE
ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY

EXCURSIONS AND BANQUETS.

BANQUET AT THE LAW SCHOOL.

The first banquet tendered by the Russian Government through Prince and Princess d'Oldenburg was in the great hall of the Law School at 6 p. m., June 18. The reunion was extremely brilliant throughout. There were present many distinguished ministers, councilors, senators, and generals of Russia, to show their respect for the object of the congress, and for the members. The dinner itself was excellent in all respects. The toasts were enthusiastically received. They were to the emperor, to Prince d'Oldenburg, and to the sovereigns and chiefs of state represented in the congress. Mr. Herbette presented one in the following terms:

In the name of the International Prison Commission and of our colleagues, the foreign members of the congress, permit me to drink to great and noble Russia, whose soul and life is in the emperor and the imperial family.

EXCURSION TO PETERHOF.

An excursion to Peterhof which will long remain in the memory of the members of the congress was tendered for the early evening of June 19th. At 6 o'clock p. m. two imperial steamers, occupied by delegates of all nations, left the dock near the Nicholas bridge for the grounds, parks, fountains, and palace of Peterhof, down the bay, on the left of and in sight of frowning Cronstadt. The early evening was as light as day, and late in the evening, into the night, there was that delightful twilight only known in the far north, and which can be realized only by experiencing. One could read or write by that light until 10 o'clock and after, and the twilight continued in this way until about 2 o'clock, when the brighter light in the east told of the coming day. Often in the still nights when no clouds or stars could be seen save the very largest, there would come unbidden those beautiful words so appropriate to the latitude:

"And there shall be no night there."

The ride down the bay was delightful, occupying over an hour. The old and new fortification at Cronstadt, and those on the right and left of that great central fortification, received interested attention from the excursionists, and the general verdict was that the ironclads that could go past the forts and live must be invulnerable indeed.

At the landing the guests found in waiting a long line of court carriages, peculiarly Russian. The horses were fine, large, and spirited. The first carriages were high, open, with cross seats richly upholstered and were occupied by the ladies. The rest had seats lengthwise on each side like two fine sofas, back to back, and were low, the feet coming only a short way from the ground. There were about 200 thus seated. The long file of carriages passed through the various portions of the great park on the drives which were shaded by great trees, and past the varied and beautiful fountains which were in full play, and which are the attraction of Peterhof. These fountains were many in form, and the immense flow of water was remarkable. It is said that they are not excelled in Europe. Among the places of interest visited was the unassuming two-story cottage once occupied by Peter the Great, where were seen many articles of furniture that were once used by the greatest monarch of Russia. The small cottage first occupied by Peter is near the cathedral of St. Peter and St. Paul, and has another building over it to preserve it. It is "over the river," in old St. Petersburg, the more modern city being on the mainland. A short time was occupied in looking through the many, and often rich, rooms of the long and low palace, or "grand chateau." One high room was covered on each side with life-size portraits in oil of typical Russian beauties, mostly of young girls. There were many valuable paintings, several being portraits of Peter the Great, or illustrating his life. From there the visitors went to an ornamental building known as My Delight, where they were received by Prince and Princess d'Oldenburg, and were entertained by an informal and agreeable repast. After this the guests wandered through the great park, looking at the many flowing fountains, the statuary, and listening to the band which discoursed most charming music for them and the many visitors from near Peterhof, who were there in grand carriages and on foot to see so many strangers from abroad. The ticket sent to members for this excursion was quite simple, compared with the others they received. It read as follows:

IV^{e} Congrès Pénitentiaire International.
Billet pour l'Excursion à Péterhof, jeudi le 7 (19) juin.
Rendezvous général; Embarcadère Quai Anglais, près du pont Nicolas, à 6 heures précises.
Costume: Habit noir, cravate blanche, sans décorations.

This card as well as conversation out of congress and addresses in it were in the official language of that body, the French, so that one heard constantly a language other than English or Russian, the French being generally spoken by educated Russians.

The visitors left Peterhof with regret. It was the most charming place they had seen in Russia. The great park, with its many winding drives through a native forest of great trees, the beautiful and wonderful fountains of endless variety and great power, the palace, the stat-

uary, the young cadets out on parade, the military music, all in the northern twilight, joined in making this place and surroundings unusually attractive. The royal carriages conveyed the guests of the nation to the landing, and soon the two steamers were moving with their consignment of various tongues and nations, and the hum of voices in all languages went on unceasingly during the return. It was about midnight when the boats touched the great granite docks built by Catherine II. It was still and clear, and beautiful as summer twilight in a southern land. Among the many courtesies so bountifully extended by Russia, there was none more informal or pleasing than the evening excursion to Peterhof.

BANQUET EXTENDED BY THE MUNICIPALITY OF ST. PETERSBURG.

The members received cards, one side in Russian and the reverse in French, which read as follows:

PERSONAL.

The municipal council of St. Petersburg requests you to please take part in a banquet which will be given Friday the 8 (20) instant, at 6:30 p. m., by the city in honor of its foreign guests, who have came to take part in the labors of the Fourth International Prison Congress.

Those who can not accept this invitation will please notify the office of the mayor.

The banquet was given in the great hall of the "Hotel de Ville," or city hall, which fronts on the Nevsky Prospect, the finest street of the capital. The hall had been beautifully decorated, and the flags of all nations represented hung from the walls. The excellent band of the firemen played during the banquet. A large number of high Russian officials were present. The menu and music cards at each table were works of art, engraved especially for the occasion. The music card was about 10 by 12 inches, printed in gilt and colors, having a view of the Hotel de Ville and an animated street scene, a female figure, wreaths, masks, a harp, music, etc., with the city arms. There were ten pieces on the programme from Mendelssohn, Glinka, Strobel, Bizet, Rubinstein, Strauss, Linke, Sêrow, Schubert, Gounod, Lanhard, H. Eilenberg, and R. Müller.

The menu card, about 8 by 12 inches, engraved for the banquet, would have honored in artistic merit the engravers of any country. The design was highly artistic and the printing was in five or six colors, soft and delicate in tone and harmonious throughout. A composite street scene representing several of the most interesting objects of the capital formed the upper part of the engraving. The Hotel de Ville, the leading statue of Catherine II, and the statue of Peter the Great were especially prominent. A scroll winding around the design and the menu part of the card carved in French the words "Fourth International Prison Congress," and on one side of the scroll the words in Russian "Without dinner there is no good company," and on the other side of the

scroll in French the words "Without bread, without wine, there is no good company." The toast card contained the following, which at the close of the banquet were presented by the mayor:

1. To his Majesty the Emperor and to the Imperial family.
2. To the sovereigns and chiefs of the states which are represented in the Prison Congress of St. Petersburg.
3. To his highness the honorary president of the congress and to her Imperial Highness Princess Eugenia d'Oldenburg.
4. To his excellency the minister of the interior and president of the Society for the Protection of Prisons.
5. To the foreign guests of the city of St. Petersburg, the members of the Fourth International Prison Congress.

The tables in the great hall formed a hollow square open at the lower end. At the upper end and fronting the hall, in the center, sat the mayor, and on his right and left were prominent Russian officials and foreign ambassadors, among them being the Hon. Charles Emory Smith, the minister of the United States and associate official delegate to the congress. The name of each guest was placed on the table by his seat, and the places were readily found. The entertainment was throughout one of the highest order, marked by the best social feeling on the part of all and by the most cordial attention of all Russians to their foreign guests. At this banquet as well as at the others in the capital, in Finland and in Moscow, the members received the most kindly attention from all. At the close of the banquet the following address was made by the mayor, M. Likhatchew:

GENTLEMEN: The last prison congress was held in Rome under the splendid skies of Italy, under the influence of the ever-vivifying rays of the sun. In the midst of a bountiful southern land you found at each step historic monuments and works of art accumulated for centuries in the Eternal City. To day, all is changed. You have assembled in the extreme north, in the midst of barren lands, in a city which has been built on a place washed by the waves of the sea when Rome was the center of the world, in a capital not yet two centuries old and which can not give you in the least the monumental richness and works of art which you have admired in Rome.

Here, gentlemen, you have found, instead of the warm days of Italy, our clear nights, sung by the poets. You can see at each step the traces of a persistent struggle against the rigors of nature pursued by the Russian people, who were inspired with the high thoughts of the illustrious founder of this city. The Russian people are doubtless still young in history, but strong by perseverance, generosity, abnegation, and zeal to go on in the way marked by their illustrious chiefs. In passing through our streets, in visiting our institutions, in inspecting our establishments for imprisonment, be pleased, gentlemen, to remember that you are in the youngest capital of Europe. If you are gratified with your entire sojourn here I recognize that it is so because of the coöperation of your countrymen.

Our great poet, Pouschkine, so venerated in his own country and so appreciated abroad, has said that St. Petersburg was "a window looking out upon Europe pierced by Peter the Great." Gentlemen, to-day this window has become a door, which we open with two large wings to our foreign guests. To your health, gentlemen, foreign guests, and members of the Fourth International Prison Congress.

In response toasts were offered by Mr. Braunbehrens, delegate from Prussia; Mr. Ciolfi, delegate from Italy, who spoke in the name of the

city of Rome; and Don Juan de Dios de la Rada y Delgado, delegate from Spain. These speakers spoke very warmly of the appreciation of the foreign members for the hospitality of which they were the object in Russia. They were applauded with the most animated acclamations. The banquet broke up about 9 o'clock p. m., all being highly gratified with the delightful entertainment.

DINNER TENDERED BY THE FOREIGN MEMBERS.

On the 21st day of June the foreign members of the Prison Congress gave a dinner to the commission of organization of the congress and of the exposition. The greatest cordiality existed during the repast, and numerous toasts were offered. Mr. Beltrani-Scalia offered a toast to His Majesty the Emperor and to Her Majesty the Empress, as well as to the august members of the imperial family. Mr. de Jagemann offered a toast to his highness Prince Alexander Pétrovitch d'Oldenburg, honorary president of the congress, and to his august wife, Princess Eugenia Maximilianova. Mr. Herbette pronounced the following discourse:

GENTLEMEN: I am sure I interpret the sentiment of all my foreign colleagues in presenting the health of the Russian organizers of the congress and the exposition. Our toast extends to his excellency the minister of the interior, whose kindness is so precious to us. Our sentiments at the same time go out to our eminent and cherished president, Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy. It is difficult to speak briefly in eulogy of him. The committee of organization, over which he presides, should receive the warmest felicitation due to men whose high position and rare merits ally themselves so well to a most gracious courtesy. And what thanks are not due to the members of the commission of the exposition, who have made in so short a time, with so much art and care, a work so vast and so worthy of drawing public attention; taking all pains, to the great advantage of the exhibitors and strangers.

Finally, the secretary, and first of all the devoted Dr. Guillaume and his assistants, so earnest and amiable, have a right to our gratitude. In this country, that they claim is so cold and which we find is so warm, with all our heart we offer the health of our guests.

These toasts were received with the warmest acclamation.

Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy expressed in warm terms his acknowledgment for the words which had just been pronounced. He also extended his thanks to the commission of organization of the congress, the International Prison Commission, and the secretaries. He concluded by saying that he should always keep in memory this cordial festival, tendered by so many eminent gentlemen assembled in St. Petersburg. He was warmly applauded.

Mr. Darlot, of Paris, member of the general council of the Seine, then spoke as follows:

GENTLEMEN: It is a great honor and satisfaction for me to speak in this social festival, as councilor-general of the Seine, and as a member of the municipal council of Paris. By reason of my duties as president of the special commission for the reorganization of the prisons of the Seine, I have been appointed by the minister of the interior to take part in this work, so interesting by its objects, and so important in the results which will come from the International Prison Congress of 1890. I am

happy, in every way, to express my appreciation for the sympathetic and kind welcome which the representatives of the Seine have met in St. Petersburg.

If the next International Prison Congress does us the honor to meet in Paris, we shall endeavor, without making any attempt to surpass in grandeur, or even to equal the receptions of St. Petersburg, to assure the eminent gentlemen who shall be sent to us, from whatever country, a welcome marked by the most frank cordiality.

I address my thanks to the organizers of the congress, to the mayor of the municipality of St. Petersburg, and in the name of the city of Paris I salute from the bottom of my heart, St. Petersburg, in St. Petersburg.

Mr. Wraskoy, in the absence of Mr. Likhatchew, mayor of St. Petersburg, who was unfortunately prevented by official business from taking part in the banquet, thanked Mr. Darlot for the words he had addressed to the capital of Russia.

Mr. Pessina, professor of the University of Naples, offered a toast to the St. Petersburg Jurisprudence Society, and to the professors of the university of that city.

Before separation Mr. Wraskoy expressed his thanks to the organizers of the banquet, Mr. Krohne, of Germany, Mr. Bernabo-Silorata, of Italy, and Mr. Bournat, of France.

THE WINTER PALACE BANQUET.

In the Winter Palace on the 22d day of June there was a grand dinner for the members of the International Prison Congress, in Nicholas Hall. Prince and Princess d'Oldenburg presided, representing in fact the Emperor at this as in other banquets, and at the sessions of the congress. This banquet and that at St. Petersburg and in the Law School and the excursion to Moscow were really courtesies extended by the Russian Government to their foreign guests. If the reader would know more regarding the interior as well as the exterior of the great Winter Palace where the banquet was held, he will find an illustrated description in Harper's Magazine for July, 1889. The following card printed on large white paper was received by each member:

By order of his majesty the Emperor, the grand marshal of the court has the honor to inform Mr. ——— ——— that he is invited to the dinner at the Winter Palace, Sunday June 10 (22), at 6 o'clock.

Black coat, white cravat, decorations.

Enter at the ambassadors stairway on the Neva side.

St. Petersburg, June, 1890.

The menu and music cards were headed by the Russian arms in gilt relief. There were two bands which played alternately during the banquet; one was the band of the eighty-fifth and the other of the eighty-sixth regiment. The repertory was as follows:

The Eighty-fifth Regiment.

1. Potpourri de l'opera Roméo et Juliette, Gounod.
2. Fantaisie de l'opera La vie pour le Tzar, Glinka.
3. Potpourri du ballet La Fille des Neiges, Minkus.
4. Air de l'opera Le Troubadour, Verdi.
5. La Retraite, Kitzer.

The Eighty-sixth Regiment.

1. Ouvre de l'opera Yelva, Réissiger.
2. Le Désir, Romance, Bach.
3. Dolores Valse, Waldteufel.
4. Le Rêve Délicieux, Gavotte. Sabattelli.
5. Potpourri, Métamorphoses Musicales, Schreiner.

The toasts were as follows:

1. To the sovereigns and chiefs of the states represented in the Prison Congress of St. Petersburg.
2. To His Imperial Majesty the Emperor and to the imperial family.
3. To his highness the honorary president of the congress and to her imperial highness Princess Eugenia d'Oldenburg.
4. To the presidents, vice-presidents, delegates, and members of the congress.

The Austrian ambassador sat at the right of Princess d'Oldenburg, and the Countess Bertiandos at the left of Prince d'Oldenburg. The minister of the interior sat opposite the prince, and Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy opposite the princess. Near them were the ambassadors of France, Italy, Turkey, Spain, Bavaria, Netherlands, Denmark, Japan, Belgium, Portugal, the United States, Servia, Greece, and chargés d'affaires of Germany, Sweden and Norway. The minister of public instruction, the minister of finance, the minister of ways and communications, and the procurer-general of the Holy Synod were also present as well as members of the council of the empire, senators, and generals. The playing of the two military orchestras was remarkable in its superior and brilliant execution. Prince d'Oldenburg, in the name of the Emperor, presented the toast to the sovereigns and chiefs of the states represented in the Congress of St. Petersburg. Mr. Beltrani-Scalia presented the toast to the Emperor and the imperial family. Mr. Herbette presented the toast to the Prince and Princess d'Oldenburg, and the prince gave the toast to the presidents, vice-presidents, delegates, and members of the congress.

There were probably 400 to 500 present. Many of the European delegates and distinguished Russians wore brilliant military and civil decorations, some bearing a single decoration of gold and diamonds, while others had a number about the neck and across the breast. While such things did not incite the envy of one who has the simpler and better ways of republicanism, they are mentioned here, as wearing them was an honor paid by distinguished foreigners to the members of the International Prison Congress. The vast Nicholas Hall, where the banquet was held, the great and brilliant St. George's Hall, the renowned Ambassador's Stairway, the decorations of the palace, the paintings and statuary in this and the adjoining hermitage, the army of well-trained and gilded attendants in livery, the glitter of untold diamonds, pearls, and rare gems on the persons of princesses and countesses, the pomp and ceremony are all necessary belongings to royalty, but not to our simple republican ways in the land of the people. But it was gratifying to the members to know that the very best that Russia had in dis-

tinguished gentlemen and ladies, representatives of the court, the universities, the army, the navy, and civil life were brought out without limit to do honor to the Prison Congress and to show the interest Russia had in the work begun by Howard in that land many years ago.

A RIVER EXCURSION.

The committee of the exposition extended to the foreign delegates a charming entertainment on the evening of June 22. They set out at 9:30 o'clock from the admiralty dock upon two steamboats of the river service. There was a military orchestra on each steamer. The night was one of those beautiful twilight nights of the northern latitude. The boats passed up the Neva and then descended to the Felician restaurant, where supper had been prepared. In the first story of the restaurant there was found a choir of Bohemian men and women, who before the supper gave some of their original songs. At the close of the supper some toasts were presented. Mr. Komorsky, the commissary general of the exposition, toasted the health of the foreign guests. Mr. Herbette and Mr. Rada successively expressed in warm terms the appreciation of the foreign delegates for their reception and for the service which the exposition had rendered to the cause of prison science.

Dr. Guillaume, addressing himself to Count Sollohub, commissary of the exposition, recalled the memory of his father, Count Vladimir, one of the first promoters of the work of the International Prison Congress when he was associated with Dr. Wines, of America.

Count Sollohub presented a toast to the families of the delegates present and spoke upon the importance of the international reunions for the advancement of science, and presented a toast to all the delegates. After some words by Mr. Salomon the Bohemian choir reentered the hall, and the festival was prolonged far into the night by music and social conversation.

FINAL ST. PETERSBURG BANQUET AND FELICITATION.

At two o'clock in the afternoon, June 24, in the grand hall of Landed Credit, a banquet was tendered by the commission of organization of the Fourth International Prison Congress. This reunion brilliantly closed the series of festivals given in St. Petersburg in honor of the congress. The banquet was presided over by Prince d'Oldenburg, who had upon his left his excellency Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy. In front of the prince was the minister of the interior, on whose right was Mr. Beltrani-Scalia, and on his left Mr. Herbette. The ambassadors of France, Italy, and Turkey were also present. Most of the ministers accredited to the imperial court and chargés d' affaires of foreign powers assisted at the banquet. Many prominent Russians honored the festival by their presence, and an orchestra played during the repast.

Prince d'Oldenburg presented a toast to his majesty the Emperor and

the Empress. Mr. Wraskoy tendered a toast to the sovereigns and chiefs of states represented in the congress, and then to the honorary president of the congress and to Princess d'Oldenburg. After this Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy toasted the delegates and members of the congress. He said:

I do not intend to make a speech. I will not recall our completed work nor our session which has just closed. But if there is a last memory to call up, it is of these cordial relations which have not ceased to exist among us, and which continue, I am convinced, to this reunion. I drink to these good relations and to the health of you all, my cherished colleagues, delegates, and members of the International Prison Congress.

Immediately after this Mr. Wraskoy toasted the minister of the interior, saying that by his aid, so powerful, he has greatly assisted the commission of organization in filling its task in a manner which had merited general approbation.

His excellency Mr. Dournovo, minister of the interior, tendered a toast to the delegates, and recalled the words he had said on their arrival in St. Petersburg, and wished them a happy return to their respective countries. These different toasts were received with general applause.

Mr. Herbette, chairman of the French delegation, spoke in warm terms of the appreciation by the foreign delegates of the welcome they had received. He tendered a toast to the organizers of the congress and the exposition, to Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy and the minister of the interior. He desired also to express his gratitude to the honorary president of the congress, and in the name of the foreign members he was happy to be able to present a toast to his majesty the Emperor. Mr. Herbette was greatly applauded. Mr. Herbette then, in the name of the French delegation, presented to Mr. Wraskoy a bronze medal specially struck off in commemoration of the congress.

Mr. Wraskoy responded, thanking Mr. Herbette, and expressed his appreciation of the honor conferred on the commission of organization by the attendance at the banquet of the foreign ambassadors and other chiefs of foreign missions, and added that he was happy to have the honor to offer a toast to the health of the ambassadors and other foreign representatives.

His excellency, Count de Wolkenstein-Trostburg, the dean of the diplomatic corps, responded, speaking in most sympathetic terms of the services rendered to the congress by Mr. Wraskoy. Some other toasts were presented, when Mr. Wraskoy said that it was due that he should render homage to the highly esteemed secretary of the congress, Dr. Guillaume. Dr. Guillaume returned cordially his thanks for the flattering distinction given him, for which, as a tribute to his country, he was proud; that in the study of these international questions he only desired the modest rôle of worker. He recalled the fact that he had enjoyed the rare honor of being secretary-general of the Prison Congress for

more than 20 years, and had labored under the orders of such chiefs as Mr. Almquist, Mr. Beltrani-Scalia, and Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy. He had witnessed the inauguration of the congress and its development. The congress has now attained the maturity of manhood and extends to the Governments the guaranty that the end it pursues is the protection of society. If the duties of secretary have been well discharged, the credit is also due to his competent assistants.

In conclusion, the secretary-general recalled the interest which the ladies had exhibited in the preparatory works, presenting able reports and assisting in the sessions of the congress. He offered a toast to the health of these ladies, and at the same time directed his attention to Prince d'Oldenburg, the honorary president, to express the sentiments relative, especially to his august wife, Princess d'Oldenburg.

The mayor of St. Petersburg then spoke as follows:

In parting from you to-day permit me to express again my grateful recognition as I did on your arrival. In repeating in the name of the municipal council my gratitude to all who have taken part in the labors of the congress, which will without doubt bear fruit, I must thank the foreign members of the congress who have left a delicate souvenir of their sojourn in St. Petersburg by a work of charity. I speak of a sum of money which was sent to me yesterday by some representatives of our foreign guests for the poor of St. Petersburg. It is with profound gratitude that I accept this sum, which I do not wish to dispose of without informing you in what way I propose to employ it. As in all great cities, St. Petersburg has also the poor, who are dependent on public charity. But among these indigent persons are those who are sick, incapable of work, who are in the hospitals, without resources to support their families, or to return to the villages or country which they left to seek work in the capital. Then there are the convalescents, who are yet too feeble to return to their work.

To aid these unfortunates and their families, as well as to provide for the orphans left without resources by their parents, who have died in the hospitals, there exist in St. Petersburg five city hospitals and some benevolent societies. The most ancient of these societies, that of the hospital of d'Oboukhow, has the honor to be under the protection of Her Majesty the Empress, and to possess already a capital of nearly half a million of francs. The youngest of these societies, organized only a few months ago, and naturally the poorest, is the society founded to assist sick women taken care of at the special hospital of Kalinkine.

If you say that in this hospital are received those women who have the misfortune to lead the kind of life that is led in Paris at the hospital of St. Lazare; in Lyons at the hospital of Antiquaille; in Berlin at the hospital of Charity; at Anvers at the hospital of St. Elizabeth, you will certainly agree that of all the poor of St. Petersburg the most worthy of compassion are those who ask not only material but also moral aid, the women and children cared for in the hospital of Kalinkine. If I add that the benevolent society of this hospital, newly organized, has had the honor to be graciously admitted to the high protection of Her Imperial Highness Princess Eugenia d'Oldenburg, the wife of our honorary president, you will comprehend, gentlemen, why I conceived the idea of transmitting to that society the sum of money intrusted to me.

This money, converted to public funds, will be set apart as a special gift "from the foreign members of the Fourth International Prison Congress," at the headquarters of this society. The interest alone will be annually expended to aid the most unfortunate. I dare hope, gentlemen, that you will approve of this disposition I have thought to give to your offering. In presenting to you again, gentlemen, the ac-

knowledgments of the municipal council permit me to express the hope that you will convey from St. Petersburg as agreeable a memory of your sojourn here as that you have left us of yourselves. Gentlemen, I do not say adieu. I only say, "Au revoir."

Finally, with the concurrence of the honorary president, a toast was offered by Mr. Wraskoy to the members of the committee of the exposition and to the secretaries who had so worthily discharged their difficult duties.

Before separation all those present, His Highness at the head, affixed their signatures to a prepared list in order to have it photographed and distributed to the members of the congress as a souvenir.

In the course of the dinner there had been distributed to the members silver medals bearing the following inscription: "Fourth International Prison Congress, St. Petersburg, 1890," and on the reverse: "Friendly souvenir from the commission of organization." The name of each member was engraved on the medal presented to him.

At the time when the members were signing the list spoken of Mr. Wraskoy announced that Prince d'Oldenburg had the happiness to receive from His Majesty the Emperor a telegram in the following terms:

The Empress and myself sincerely thank the congress for the sentiments expressed towards ourselves. I hope that the deliberations of the congress will be productive of good results for the common cause, and that all members will preserve a pleasant memory of their sojourn in Russia.

ALEXANDER.

The reading of this telegram was loudly applauded. The band played the national hymn, and the audience, moved by this mark of Imperial good will, began to separate, carrying with them pleasing memories of courtesies extended and of acquaintances renewed and made, and a high appreciation of the social features of the Fourth Congress.

EXCURSION TO FINLAND.

The members of the congress were informed that the programme of the excursion to Finland would be as follows:

Depart from St. Petersburg Tuesday, June 24, at 10 o'clock p. m., by steamboats at the Neva dock, No. 13. Arrive at Viborg, June 25 at 7:30 a. m.; visit the Falls of Imatra, the Saima Lake, and from there, by steamboats, to Williamstrand. Arriving at Helsingfors June 26, at 9 a. m., visit the central prison of Sœrnæs, the museums, libraries, etc. Those persons who take part in the excursion to Moscow could leave Helsingfors by night train for St. Petersburg to take the express train at the Nicholas depot Saturday, June 28, at 8 a. m. In conformity to this programme the members of the congress left St. Petersburg Tuesday, June 24, at 10 o'clock in the evening, at that hour the light being almost that of daytime. Two steamboats were necessary to carry the members. The decks were decorated with the flags of the nations repre-

sented. As the trim-built, well-proportioned steamers passed down the Neva out into the wider bay and past the Cronstadt and the old high and the new low fortifications, which frowned on foes and smiled on friends, the great guns boomed a salute to those whose mission was not war but peace, good will, charity, and kindness to friend and foe, to the best of earth, and to those whose worst enemies are themselves. Long into the night the members were on deck in friendly converse, in which the French, German, Russian, and the English language could be heard. The Society of Tourists of Finland presented to each a Guide to Finland, illustrated by photographs, containing a fine colored map. On the first page was printed the words, "Homage of the Society of Tourists of Finland to the Members of the Prison Congress of St. Petersburg in St. Petersburg, for their Excursion to Finland."

This little work was by Augusté Ramsay, PH. D., and treated of the Grand Duchy of Finland, and marked out several routes as follows:

1. From St. Petersburg to Helsingfors.
2. Helsingfors.
3. From Stockholm to Helsingfors.
4. Viborg, Imatra, Williamstrand.
5. Williamstrand, Nyslatt, and Punkaharju.

While the two royal steamers are pushing their way northward over the quiet sea and through the twilight night, it may be opportune to say a few words of the interesting country most of the members are visiting for the first time.

Finland is situated between the sixtieth and seventieth degrees of north latitude and the twentieth and thirty-second degrees of longitude east of Greenwich. It is about two-thirds the size of France; but only a small part of this land can be cultivated. The lakes occupy 12, the marshes 20, and the forests and rocks 60 per cent. Compared with other countries of the same latitude, the climate is mild. January is the coldest month, and sometimes the thermometer is 30° below zero. The clear summer nights make a deep impression on strangers. In Lapland, at the time of the summer solstice, the sun does not descend below the horizon. Even in the south of Finland at this time of the year there is no night. Between the setting and rising of the sun, that is, in July, between 9 p. m. and 3 a. m., there reigns a clear twilight, a light without shade and with a strange effect. The population is 2,300,000. The language is Swede and Finn. The Swedes are about 14 per cent. and the Finns about 85 per cent. of the population. About 5,000 have the Russian for their maternal language. The religion is Lutheran. There are nearly 41,500 members of the Greek and about 2,300 of the Catholic Church.

Finland is an independent government attached to Russia. It has its own legislature, making its own laws, subject to the approval of the Emperor. At the time of the excursion, Finland had its own monetary, military, and postal system. Since then the postal system has been in-

corporated with that of Russia, greatly to the alarm of the people of Finland. The present order of things has existed since Alexander I occupied the country. He then confirmed their constitution and religion. The following is the declaration of the Emperor at the opening of the Diet, March 15 (27), 1809, which forms the Magna Charta of that people:

Providence having placed us in possession of the Grand Duchy of Finland, we have desired by the present act to confirm and ratify the religion and fundamental laws of the land as well as the privileges and rights which each class in the said Grand Duchy, in particular, and all the inhabitants in general, be their position high or low, have hitherto enjoyed according to the constitution. We promise to maintain all these benefits and laws firm and unshaken in their full force.

Under this compact the Emperor received the title of Grand Duke of Finland and the homage of the estates which took the oath of fealty to the new sovereign; and the herald announced, "Long live Alexander I, Emperor of all Russia and Grand Duke of Finland." At the conclusion the Emperor addressed the estates in the French language, reaffirming the compact made and calling it an act of union. The first material encroachment on this has been the adoption of the postal system; and the people have feared that this was a prelude for Russianizing Finland entirely. The later addresses of Alexander II to the Diet fully confirmed the acts of his predecessor.

The people of Finland are intelligent, hardy, and comparatively poor, with a great love of liberty, which they have long enjoyed to a great extent and to which they tenaciously cling. In this love of liberty and independence they very naturally have the sympathy of Americans, who can not but hope that their institutions of civil and religious liberty may be maintained. The materials at hand and the memory of that visit would furnish sufficient data for a volume on the history, manners, customs, and political situation of that interesting people, and the subject is reluctantly discontinued.

The excursionists arrived at Viborg at 7:30 a. m. The first object which arrested attention was the large and ancient castle of Viborg, a very interesting historical monument which sustained many sieges centuries ago. At Viborg the interior canal connects with the chain of lakes. The travelers disembarked from the steamers *Abo* and *Onlu* and went immediately to the Garden of St. Anne, where an excellent breakfast was in waiting. The band of the Eighth battalion played national airs and Mr. Braunbehrens expressed the thanks of the delegates for their cordial reception by the people of Finland. Mr. Herbette joined in this expression of gratitude, and presented a toast to General Grippenberg, commander of the garrison, and to the representatives of the civil authorities. General Grippenberg responded, expressing his pleasure in meeting the members of the International Prison Congress in Finland.

The day was rainy, which interfered with observations in this interesting locality. Two other steamers were here taken which traverse

the grand and interesting canal of Saima, a canal which does honor to the people of Finland and to the engineers who planned and constructed it. Twelve years were occupied in building it and it was completed in 1856. Prison labor was considerably used in the work. There were numerous locks which interested the excursionists. The canal where narrow was constructed with stone on the sides, but often was wide, opening into small or large lakes, nearly all of which had low shores and were often marshy. The scenery was monotonous as in Northern Russia and in extreme Northern Germany.

The forests are composed almost exclusively of white birch and pine, both kinds being small. Large trees were seldom seen. At Rättigärvi the steamers were left and carriages taken for a ride of several hours to the falls or rapids of Imatra, the most interesting object to see on this inland excursion. The rapids are formed by the river Vuoxen, the outlet of the vast system of the inland lakes of Finland, a powerful river which has worn its way through rocky hills forming these rapids and then passes into lake Ladoga. The descent in about one-fourth of a mile is about 60 feet. The huge rocks project from the surface of the great flood and high and rough rocks line the shores. The rapids are apparently about 200 feet wide at the point where generally visited by tourists near the great hotel for excursionists. The impression on the spectator as he stands by this great mass of water moving down its rocky bed with its thundering echoes is in many respects greater than at Niagara. As an exhibition of power the rush and downward sweep of this immense mass of water broken into irregular currents and now and then into white foam, is most impressive and astonishing. The travelers for a long time stood by the banks or wandered up and down on the rocky shore, deeply gratified by the view of the wonderful falls of Imatra. An excellent repast was in readiness in the large hotel. Lieutenant-General Alftan, vice president of the Senate of Finland, extended a welcome to the delegates and especially to the ladies and expressed the hope that all would take with them the most pleasant memory of their visit to the falls of Imatra. Mr. Stoïanovsky, member of the council of the Empire, added some pleasing words addressed to the guests of Finland, whom they were so well pleased to meet. Mr. Herbette, in behalf of the delegates, extended most cordial thanks for the very friendly reception and especially expressed his gratitude to Senators Michelin and Montgomery, who had been our voluntary and amiable guides to that country.

Count Sollohub and Mr. Foïnitsky also made some remarks. After these proceedings the members reëntered the carriages, which took them to the steamers on lake Saima. It was then about sunset and it was evening soon after the steamers were under way. The rain had ceased and the travelers remained on deck long into the night, as they sailed on through this large lake sprinkled with many islands covered

with trees, with the main shores bordered with pine and white birch. Never before probably had this northern land been so invaded by such an international company that came with no war nor battle sound. There was not only cordial conversation between different nationalities and languages, but there were recitations and songs in Spanish, Italian, French, and Swedish, rendered in a manner that would have done credit to professionals on the stage. Madame Brunot, of Paris, one of the ladies present, recited the following, which was enthusiastically applauded:

To Russia, one day, God said, in His kindness,
"Which of my favors excites thy pride?
Is it thy land which envelops the earth,
Which, not content with lakes, holds an entire sea,
Which the stars always see under them
When thy world rolls on in the infinite heavens?
Is it thy St. Petersburg? Thy ancient Moscow?
Thy mines of Oural, or thy walls of Bakou?
Thy wheat of Odessa, which fills the granaries of the world?
Thy roads of Annenkow tracing the maps?
Is it thy great army, at heart so generous,
And which inspires happiness and joy in its friends,
To its enemies the fear of its eagle,
The strongest respect and the confidence of the feeble?
Is it thy grand life and thy brilliant court;
Thy palaces, thy nobility? And to see each day
The Escurial deserted and Versailles solitary,
When, with its thousand lights, Peterhof is brilliant?"
At the words Russia was thrilled,
Moving the earth with a long rumbling,
And from the seas of Japan to the lakes of Finland
This cry went up to God in response,
"I am proud to see my scepter carried
By honor, virtue, strength, and kindness."

At 1 o'clock in the morning the steamer arrived at Williamstrand. The cars were waiting, and by 9:30 a. m. Helsingfors, the capital of Finland, was reached. At 11 a. m. two steamers took the delegates to the central prison, Soernaes, which was visited throughout. This prison is one of the new ones constructed under Russian authority, and in its plan and purposes is typical of modern Russian construction. Though smaller, it is in many respects similar to the great prison in St. Petersburg known as the New or Viborg prison. This receives prisoners condemned to hard labor for the term of 1 month to 5 years. At that time there were 395 male prisoners. The maximum number for the full capacity would be 440. There were 45 employés. The prison was inaugurated in 1881. It is organized after the progressive system under the direction of Dr. Grotenfelt, an authority well known among prison specialists. It is expected that by the coming January, in accordance with the code of Finland, conditional liberations will be in part adopted.

The prison reflects great honor not only on Finland, but on Russia as well, as it is a part of the Russian advance movement in prison reform. This prison was finished in 1881, at a cost of about $434,116. The cells are large and well lighted and ventilated. The corridors are roomy and light, and an air of cleanliness and purity prevailed. All the appointments for washing, bathing, and cooking seemed to be on the most approved plans.

The ground plan and sectional views of the prison are given on page 242.

After visiting the prison the members were conveyed in carriages to the Toeloe park, where an excellent repast was waiting. At the suggestion of Mr. Trübner and Mr. Wraskoy a collection was taken for the committee of patronage of discharged prisoners. Madame Brunot and Countess Chorinski amiably took it upon themselves to make the collection, which realized about $180, which was divided equally between two committees of patronage, one directed by the Baroness Wrède and the other by Mr. Trübner. The Countess Chorinski and Madam Brunot were toasted. Dr. Guillaume also toasted Dr. Grotenfelt, who assisted at the banquet notwithstanding the condition of his health.

The members of the congress had been invited to a dinner to be given by the city government of Helsingfors.

The elegant invitation cards, printed in French, with the city coat of arms, read as follows:

The city of Helsingfors has the honor to invite Mr. ——— ——— to a dinner tendered to the members of the Fourth International Prison Congress at Helsingfors, at the hotel of the Society, on Thursday, June 26, 1890, at 6 o'clock in the evening.

Present this card at the entrance S. V. P.

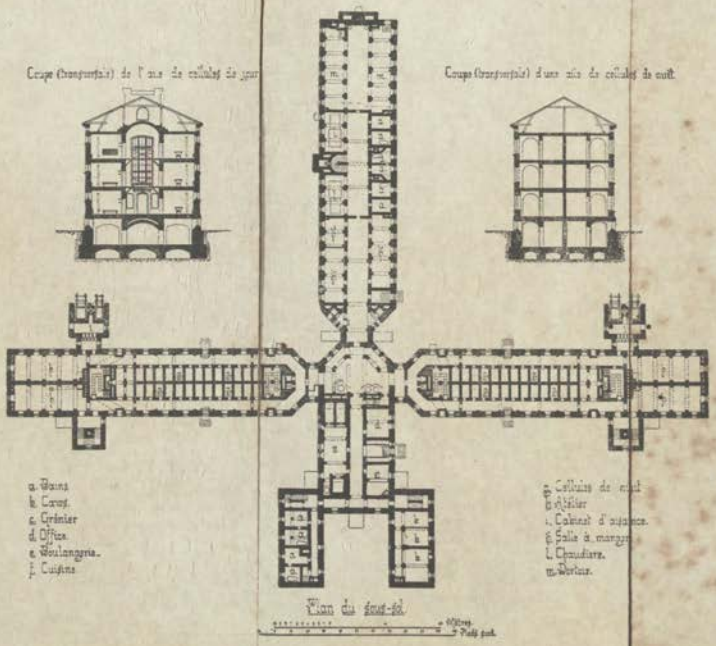
The toasts were—

1. To his majesty the Emperor and Grand Duke. 2. To the sovereigns and chiefs of state of foreign nations represented here. 3. To the members of the prison congress.

The repertory of the band was composed of 10 pieces. The dinner was in the grand hall of the hotel "Society." It was ornamented with much taste and brilliantly lighted. There were about 350 persons present. In the absence of the governor general, his assistant, Baron and General Forselles presided. On his right was the president of the congress, his excellency Mr. Wraskoy, and on his left was his excellency Mr. Stoïanovsky, member of the council of the empire and president of the Society of Jurisprudence of St. Petersburg. There were present a great number of the senators of Finland and other high dignitaries. General Forselles toasted the Emperor, and the toast was received with great applause, and the orchestra played the national hymn. Mr. Runeberg toasted the sovereigns and chiefs of the states represented. Senator Michelin welcomed the members of the congress and spoke of the happy coincidence of their arrival on the day when the new code of Finland

Pl. Ib

MAISON CENTRALE DE HELSINGFORS.



CENTRAL PRISON OF HELSINGFORS, FINLAND.

came into operation. This new code, he said, was formed on the most recent theories in prison science and witnessed the progress of this branch of science in Finland. Finland, he continued, was doubly happy to meet in Helsingfors so many illustrious representatives of prison science. The senator completed his discourse by toasting in the warmest terms the delegates and members of the congress. This toast was received with most lively applause.

Mr. Wraskoy expressed his thanks for the welcome received and for the generous hospitality of the city of Helsingfors. In the meantime, he did not know how to express his pleasure as a Russian in seeing the cities rival each other in extending welcome to their foreign guests. It was so lately in St. Petersburg. It was yesterday the same in Viborg, and at Imatra, and to-day it is so in Helsingfors. To-morrow it will doubtless be the same in Moscow. In conclusion, he toasted the city of Helsingfors.

Don Juan de la Rada expressed his gratitude for the welcome and hospitality of which the members have been the object since they entered Russia, and in moving words tendered a toast to his majesty the Emperor of Russia.

Mr. Leitmaier, in an address in German, expressed his admiration for the beautiful spectacles of nature which he had witnessed since his entrance into Finland, mentioning some of the pictures most pleasing to him, and concluded by a toast to the governor general, to the city of Helsingfors, to her representatives, and to the chief placed at their head, Mr. Runeberg, son of the great poet of Finland. Mr. Giacone, in the name of the press, toasted the Prison Congress, and Mr. Foïnitsky toasted Dr. Guillaume, the secretary general.

Dr. Guillaume responded to the toast in his honor. He spoke of the development which educational prison régime had undergone, which was cellular at first, then Auburn, and finally progressive, commencing by isolation and ending by work in common and liberation. The education of the people is made in the same manner. Each native is at first isolated, but in the course of time they go out of this cellular stage to a life in common, where they can unite their efforts in preparing humanity for greater happiness and to assure universal peace. He compared the scenery of Finland with that of Switzerland, and concluded by drinking to the memory of the great poet Runeberg.

Mr. Komarow, in the name of his colleagues of the Russian diplomatic corps, spoke of his pleasure in being one of the secretaries of the congress, where he had the pleasure of meeting so many eminent gentlemen. He saw in their modest coöperation the symbol of the rôle which belongs to diplomacy in service of this kind. It is for savants, jurists, managers of special duties, to be originators in the great questions of humanity. It is for diplomacy to sustain them as much as possible.

Dr. Riggenbach, chaplain of the penitentiary of Bale, improvised the following verses in German:

THE SWITZER'S GREETING TO FINLAND.

Suomi, land of the thousand seas,
With peaceful plains girt round with forests,
In thee at once must surely disappear
The last trace of the Switzer's homesickness.
The wonderful charm of the country
Thrills me with the ecstasy of home,
And, though the sun veils himself,
I hail thee, northern Switzerland!
I greet thee, noble Finland,
Thou, beautiful fair northern maid;
I salute thee with sincerest feeling;
May God preserve thee from all harm.

At the conclusion of the dinner the members listened to a concert in the park, where the ladies of highest rank in Finland served tea to the members.

The train left at 11 p. m., bearing away the excursionists, and the last sounds they heard were the adieus of their new friends and the music of the band which played in their honor that most beautiful and grand production, the Russian national hymn.

EXCURSION TO MOSCOW.

The preparations for this excursion were ample for the convenience and pleasure of all. A printed programme showing what was to be done each day, including the return, and a special time-table giving the names of each station where the train would stop, the time of detention, and where meals would be had, was handed to each member. The train was a special one, and each delegate had his compartment awarded him for going and returning. Personal attention was given in this to insure each having in his compartment a gentleman with him who would be acceptable. The cars were large and the apartments roomy, with comfortable sleeping arrangements. For this long ride of 500 miles everything was well planned and admirably executed. The road runs almost in an air line and is known as the Nicholas road. It is said that when the Emperor was asked on what line it should be run he took a map and drew a straight line from Moscow to St. Petersburg and said, "On that line." The stations at which the train was to stop were Lubane, Wischera, Okulowka, Onglowka, Bologoe, Spirowo, Twer, Kline, and Moscow.

The train left the Nicholas depot at St. Petersburg, June 28, at 8 a. m., and arrived in Moscow at 10.45 p. m., where a member of the city council of Moscow was in waiting and indicated to the members of the congress the hotels to which they were assigned and placed carriages subject to their order during their sojourn in that city. From the depot

it was about half an hour's ride through this ancient and peculiarly oriental city to the several hotels, which were mostly near the Kremlin and outside the walls of the old city. The Hotel Continental, to which many were assigned, had been opened only about one year, and reminds one of the hotels of western Europe. Lodging and meals at the hotels were free, as were the carriages, the ride on the railroad, and all the excursions.

The next morning being Sunday many members attended the Greek service in the different cathedrals. The new and beautiful cathedral, or Church of the Savior, which is outside the Kremlin, was visited by many, who were deeply impressed by the beauty and grandeur of the building, with the richness of the interior, and with the Greek service so grand and impressive with many voices and no instrument. At 1:30 p. m. the members went in a body to call on Prince Vladimir Galitsyne, the governor general of Moscow.

The programme of the day included the celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the city asylum of Roukavischnikow. This asylum is under the control of the city of Moscow and contained 110 young prisoners and 10 accused, the latter being in a separate building. The prisoners are in four divisions. The first comprises those who have committed offenses in consequence of abandonment by their parents and those who are dependent, not criminal, by such abandonment. The second are those who are mild in character, ready to do good or evil according to the influence exerted on them. The third are those who are corrupt or perverse, but obedient under fear of punishment. The fourth comprehends those whose perversity requires special supervision. The prisoners learn different trades. In the choice of occupation the physician is consulted, and the education, capacity, and wishes of the children are considered. They have had also classes for religious education, reading, writing, and arithmetic. Designing, singing, and music are also taught. The children who go out from the asylum receive assistance in money for their equipment and tools. The asylum procures for each discharged child a place to work, supervises it, goes to its aid if unfortunate, and, if its conduct is good for three years after discharge, it receives further aid in money.

The institution was established in 1864. It owes its existence to the honorable president of the Society for the Circulation of Useful Books, which society, by her request, founded the asylum. Its history is interesting and would be given here did space permit. Its objects and general plan are so intelligent and its success so manifest that the celebration of its 25th year seemed highly appropriate, and to witness that celebration was the principal object of the excursion. The members were taken in carriages from their hotels to the asylum, the distance being too great for walking.

The front of the building was gaily decorated with flags. The members and others first met in the chapel at 2 o'clock where a Greek

service was held, commencing with the Te Deum, which was celebrated by his eminence Mgr. Ioaunice, the Metropolitan of Moscow. Assisting in the Te Deum were their excellencies Prince Galitsyne, governor-general, aid-de-camp of General Kostanda, and chief of the military conscription; Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, Kapoustine, curator of the University of Dorpat, Prince Obolensky as governor, Mouraview, prosecutor to the court in Moscow, etc., other notables of Moscow, and the delegates of the Prison Congress present. At the close of the religious services Mgr. Ioaunice addressed the audience on the subject of establishments for the reformation of vicious children, in a Christian point of view. After the Te Deum, prayers were said for their imperial majesties, for Mgr. the Grand Duke Césarevitch, the holy synod and Mgr. the Metropolitan, and also for the repose of the soul of the deceased Nicholas Roukavischnikow, the first director of the asylum which bears his name. The Metropolitan having left the asylum the rest of the audience went to the large hall for the celebration of the jubilee. The hall was ornamented with flags and escutcheons of all nations represented in the congress.

Upon the platform were his excellency Galkine-Wraskoy, who presided, Prince Galitsyne, General Kostanda, Mme. Roukavischnikow and Mr. Roukavischnikow, Aléxeiew, mayor of the city, Mouraview and Lavrow, president of the court of the district.

Mr. Roukavischnikow, the present superintendent, welcomed the visitors and expressed his high gratification at their attendance. In celebrating the 25th anniversary of this institution he referred to its past and remarked that if at the beginning its resources were meager, to day it is one of the most important in the Empire. If, the speaker said, such were the results, the honor should reflect on his brother Nicholas, whose love and devotion for unfortunate children was very great. The honor also belongs to the municipal council of Moscow, which has always come to their aid in providing necessary resources. A quarter of a century has passed, and in celebrating this anniversary the present superintendent finds new strength to continue the work to which his brother was so devoted.

The president of the reunion, Mr. Wraskoy, said he had no address to make and would not occupy the time of others, but he desired to remind them of the school of Madam Strékalow, whose charity is so generally recognized and who conceived the idea of converting her school into a correctional institution. It is to do justice that her name is mentioned here. He who came to her aid was Mr. Kapoustine, who now is the superintendent of the school of Dorpat. Both to whom he referred had taken inspiration from Nicholas Roukavischnikow, who had devoted himself to this work. His brother, Constantine, who has accepted the position, will be a worthy successor. In conclusion Mr. Wraskoy, in behalf of His Majesty the Emperor, expressed his gratitude to the

present superintendent and bestowed medals on the officers of the institution.

The mayor of the city, Mr. Aléxeiew, for the people of Moscow, expressed his gratitude for the work of the asylum and for all the good it had accomplished, and congratulated Mr. Roukavischnikow on the success of the celebration. In the name of the University of Moscow Mr. Tarassow made the following address:

The most ancient of the universities of the Empire, on the occasion of the celebration of its 25th anniversary, salutes the first Russian reformatory for young delinquents. It is particularly agreeable to the University of Moscow to join in all these congratulations addressed to-day to this establishment, in the persons of Nicholas and Constantine Roukavischnikow, who have devoted their lives to the prosperity of this great work. We have had them on the seats of the University of Moscow. It is a matter of just pride that we have produced such men as Nicholas Roukavischnikow. He is not with us. God has called him to a better world. It is not proper to mourn for him to-day, but to thank the Almighty for having given him to us. All his life was an example, and this example is not without result if we judge by the work of his brother Constantine. The university has given us another eminent man in this field. I speak of Mr. Kapoustine, the superintendent at Dorpat. To-day the University of Moscow, thanking the asylum for the past, offers a fraternal hand for the future.

Following this Mr. Mouraview read an address in Russian, after which he spoke at length in French, which was frequently interrupted with applause. Only the conclusion of this lengthy and eloquent address can be given:

But I see it is time I must close. Eyewitnesses of the remarkable results attained by this establishment in its truly reformatory work for removing from these children the last vestiges of past faults, we recognize this asylum as one of the greatest, most efficient and pacific victories in our country over vice and crime. We are doubly happy to speak to-day at an anniversary which we hope will be followed by good results. I say doubly, for this anniversary has become for us a double festival by the presence of the members of the first International Prison Congress held in Russia. On the eve of their return to their own countries, with hearts the same as ours, charmed and astonished with this imposing spectacle of this sublime fraternity of science and progress we can rightly say: Dear colleagues and colaborers, as far as possible, we are with you in the gigantic contest of good against evil and of light against darkness. We desire to fight in your ranks with some difference, perhaps, of forces and of language imposed on us by the needs and interests of our country, but with a common purpose towards the same generous end—the mutual safety of society and the individual, in the name of the same eternal principles of justice and humanity.

Following this there were deputations and addresses from the court of Moscow, from the association of the justices of the peace of the city, from the Law Societies of Moscow and St. Petersburg, from the Agricultural Colony of St. Petersburg, from the Reformatory of Kharkow, from the colony of Nijni-Novgorod; from the Asylum of Bolchevo; from the members of the third reunion of the reformatory institutions of Russia, and from some other reformatory establishments in Warsaw, Saratow, etc., from the asylums of Moscow, from the Society for the Protection of Children Transported to Siberia, and from the asylums and factories of the Society for the Assistance of Discharged Minors.

After the address an orchestra, composed of inmates of the school, played a religious hymn, and after that the national anthem, which was applauded and encored. The playing was very good. The invited guests then visited the institution in detail, including the industrial sections.

At 6 p. m. the high dignitaries of the city and all the members of the congress met at the dining hall of the Hermitage, where they were entertained by Mr. Roukavischnikow. The hall was luxuriously decorated with a profusion of flowers, each guest finding at his place a button-bouquet of roses and a collection of small flags, one for each country represented. A fine orchestra was present and enlivened the festival with charming music. The usual toasts included one to the host and hostess. Complimentary addresses were made by Mr. de Jagemann, Mr. Voisin, Mr. Rada, Mr. Yakoview, Mr. Herbette, Mr. Monraview, and Mr. Wraskoy. At the close of the banquet Mr. Roukavischnikow distributed to each person an album containing photographs of his institution, including views of the boys engaged in various mechanical industries, with a commemorative silver medal of very artistic execution. The morning of the 30th was devoted to visiting various places of interest. Some went to the Palace of Justice in the Kremlin. They met in the grand round hall of St. Catharine and were received by Mr. Monraview, procurer of the court of justice. Many delegates, including ladies, visited the Grand Palace in the Kremlin, the principal cathedrals, the ancient home of the Romanoff boyards, the galleries of Tretiakow and Botkine, and some prisons, and the historical museum. These and other places of interest were very attractive to the visitors. The historic Kremlin alone was sufficient to take the entire attention for many days. It contains the monuments of all epochs. It is a collection of superb structures which follow no special style. Sometimes they are Byzantine, then Gothic, then Arabian, and then even in the Hindu or Chinese. Karamzine has said:

> It was in the Kremlin that Dmitri Donskoï unfurled his flag before setting out for Mamai, that Joan Wassilievitch trampled under foot the image of the Khan to which the grand dukes would render homage. It was from the Kremlin that the sacred shades of his virtuous ancestors drove Ivan the Terrible when he had ceased to be virtuous. It was by the Holy Gate that Wassili Chonisky entered, condemned to death, and then pardoned by Dmitri, holding with one hand a cross and with the other a sword with which to kill the imposter. The place is shown where Dmitri fell in leaping from one of the windows of the palace. It was in the area in front of the church of the Assumption that the young Czar Michael, just crowned, wept bitter tears while the Russians embraced his feet and shed tears of joy.

It was from the high ground of the Kremlin that Napoleon looked down upon burning Moscow. Its cathedrals contain the last mortal remains of all the Czars of Russia before Peter the Great, and also of Peter II. The new palace with its St. George's Hall, a dream of architectural beauty, and with other vast rooms, including the apartments of their majesties, the winter garden, etc., is a place of wonderful interest.

Few, if any, palatial interiors of Europe surpass it. The treasury of the Kremlin was visited and kept the members a long time in viewing the ancient historical collection. Here were the crowns of ancient Emperors, their scepters, including that of Peter the Great, a throne of ivory, thrones ornamented with precious stones, and thrones with ornamental figures, the clothing of Peter the Great as a sailor, vessels of gold and of silver, standards of the Czars, state carriages, etc., without number, showing the various trappings of ancient royalty. There were other places of interest to visit. Cannons of the Kremlin, the Arsenal, the Senate, the Monastery of Meradies, the palace of Nicholas, etc. But a description of this oriental and most wonderful city of Russia must be looked for in books of travel.

At 6 o'clock in the evening the banquet provided by the mayor of Moscow took place. There were 380 guests. The invitation card was in Russian. The menu card was in colors and the engraving was a work of high art. At the top was a view of the Kremlin, showing the walls and several of the finest churches. There were present at the dinner many distinguished Russians. The dinner was in the pavilion of the Sokolniki Park, which was decorated with great luxury. The building was somewhat like a tent in form, built by the Emperor a few years since in which to entertain his generals. In the center was a large band stand, and the tables in the great auditorium were arranged around it. The dinner was complete in all respects and the best social spirit prevailed throughout. Toasts and addresses were the order of the evening. The orchestra played the national hymn and other selections. Long after the dinner was served the delegates remained in the pavilion in familiar conversation with each other and with noted gentlemen of Moscow.

The next morning, July 1st, the members of the congress visited the transfer prison of Moscow, and there saw many convicts who were to be sent the next day to Siberia. They had been grouped in large rooms so they could be seen more readily. The men were dressed in long coarse gray overcoats and had the hair on one side of the head closely cropped. There were in one room many young boys 12 to 15 years of age, who had either committed some offense or were allowed to go with their parents. In one large room were many women with their young children. They had passed the night on wide wooden benches which served for beds. In driving away from the prison, a consignment of prisoners was met on the street in charge of armed soldiers. The women and small children were in carts and the men on foot with chains on their legs. Both in prison and out of it these convicts were a sorry looking lot indeed. They were criminals and not politicals. Two were spoken of as brothers who had just been condemned for killing their parents. Most of those in this prison were to go to Siberia as colonists, their exile being for life.

The same day many delegates went by special train to the correctional

institution of Bolchevo, near Mytistchi. They were very pleasantly entertained by a dinner and an orchestra, and by singing by the boys of the national hymn and other selections. The dinner was followed by toasts and addresses. There were 50 boys in this school and they were mainly trained in mechanical industries. The members inspected the shops where the boys were at work and found them industrious, well trained, and quite expert in mechanics.

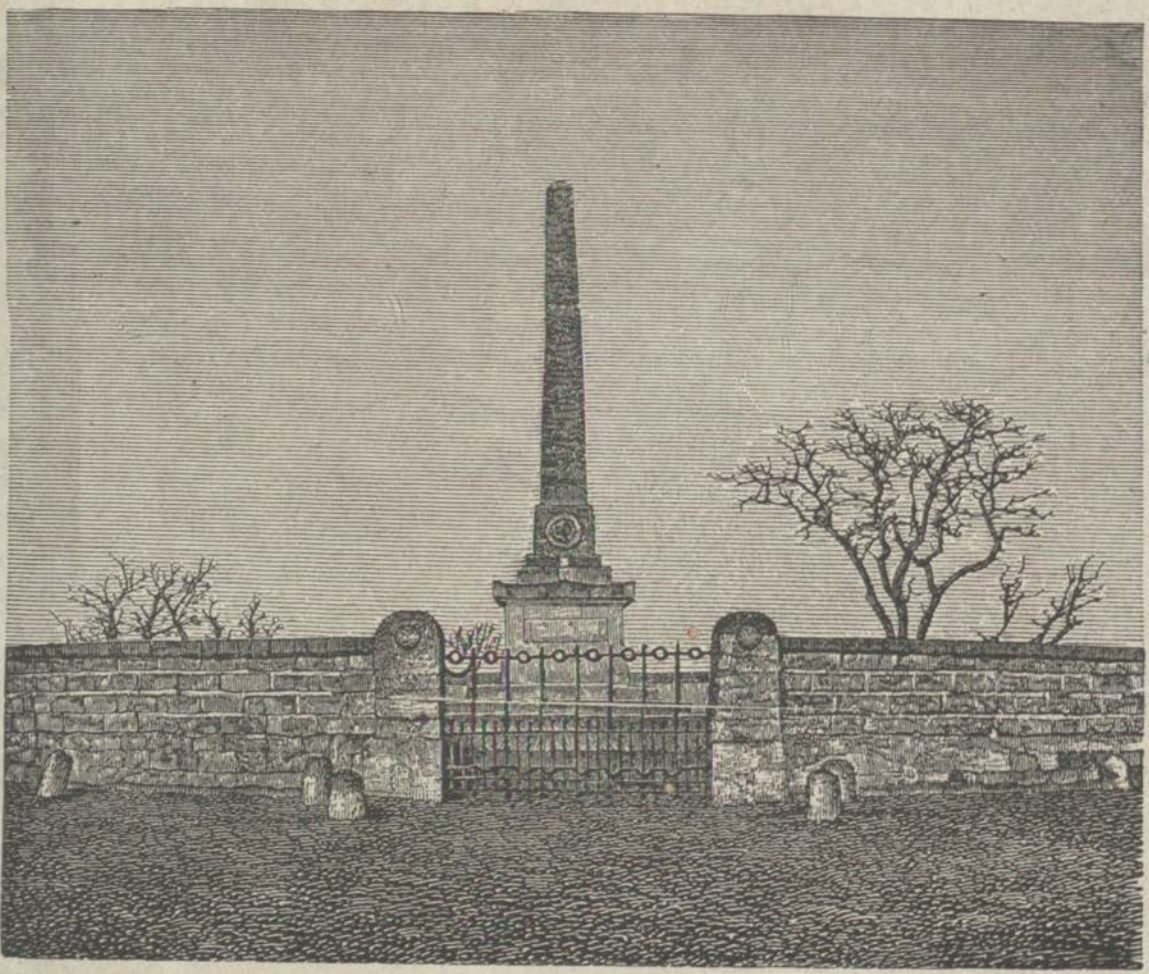
In going to and from Bolchevo, from the depot, the excursionists passed through a typical Russian village, which differs so much from an American one that a brief description will be given from memory. This lies at the crossing of two roads and the houses are on the cross roads only, there being no other streets or lanes. The houses are about 15 by 20 feet on the ground and one story high. Many are built of logs, some boarded over, and all are unpainted, weatherbeaten, and old. The absence of ornamental trees was noticeable. The streets are narrow. Where the road passes through the farms it is only about wide enough for one carriage.

On the farms were seen many groups of laborers, among which there were usually as many women as men. The white and red being so conspicuous in their clothing it made the groups quite striking and picturesque.

The excursion to Bolchevo terminated the series of banquets and other entertainments furnished by the commission of organization. At 9 p. m. of that day the special train with the members on board left Moscow for St. Petersburg where they arrived the next morning at 11 a. m., highly gratified with their visit to the eastern capital.

July 31, or very soon after, the foreign delegates set out for their respective homes, the Fourth International Congress having ended.

The courteous attentions of the committee of organization did not cease until the trains bearing their guests had actually moved from the station.



MONUMENT TO JOHN HOWARD.

OPPOSITE THE PRISON OF KHERSON, AT THE END OF HOWARD STREET.

JOHN HOWARD: REVIEW OF THE MEMORIALS TO HIS MEMORY IN RUSSIA.

By Mr. GALKINE-WRASKOY,
Chief of the Administration General of Prisons of Russia.

The Fourth International Prison Congress, which convened at St. Petersburg, 100 years after the death of John Howard, is in a manner devoted to the memory of that illustrious philanthropist.

It is upon Russia that Providence has bestowed the honor of guarding the mortal remains of that generous man, who, according to the words of the apostle, *Omnibus omnia factus est ut omnes faceret salvas.* A quarter of a century had scarcely passed since the death of Howard, and while the memory of his work in Russia was still living, his ideas of prison reform penetrated our legislation and served as the basis for all further reforms in the domain of prison discipline.

The salutary influence of these ideas, and the exceptional services rendered to humanity by Howard, have been highly appreciated by the august sovereigns of Russia.

A proof of this is in the erection at Kherson, in honor of Howard, a monument, an exact copy of which ornaments the assembly hall of the congress. Another proof is seen in the international contest open at the time of the congress, aiming to call forth a special work upon Howard, and to make for him a *monumentum ære perennius.*

Desiring to provide for the members of the Fourth International Prison Congress a souvenir of the honors rendered to the memory of Howard in Russia, I have thought it opportune to make use of my pamphlet upon the monument of Howard at Kherson. I add to this the regulations for the international contest, mentioned above, and the design of the medal, the prize to the successful author. Above all, good fortune renders it possible that I can reproduce a picture of Howard, of which the following is the history.

In 1790, some weeks after the death of John Howard, there appeared in London a pamphlet entitled "Anecdotes of the life and character of John Howard, esq., LL. D." The anonymous author of that work appeared to be an intimate friend of the deceased. The pamphlet was ornamented by an engraving of Howard, and taken after a crayon portrait. The artist of this crayon, also anonymous, was a lady who had lived in the same house with Howard for many years before he undertook his last journey. There is, then, every reason to believe that this portrait sufficiently resembles the original.

The engraving mentioned has been used as a model for a high-relief, sculptured by the artist, Miss Butler. A photograph of this high-relief

has been kindly placed at our disposal by Mr. F. Mouat, M. D., LL. D., vice president of the Royal Society of Statistics in London.

We express to him here our warm thanks for having made it possible for us to reproduce the portrait of John Howard, who, as has been said of him, is a "unicum" very dear to all.

M. GALKINE-WRASKOY.

ST. PETERSBURG, 1890.

THE MONUMENTS OF JOHN HOWARD AT KHERSON.

Many persons are, perhaps, ignorant that in the southern part of Russia, at Kherson, can be found two monuments of John Howard—one upon his grave, in the environs of the city, the other in the city itself, on the prison grounds.

The work of Howard in prison reform is so well known that it will be unnecessary to speak here of the services which he has rendered in that respect. It suffices to say that Howard, imbued in the latter half of the eighteenth century with the idea of making "prisoners honest and industrious," by introducing work in the prisons, sacrificed all his life to make this principle of prison system successful in his country, and crowned his efforts by his celebrated work "The State of Prisons in England and Wales." It was not, however, only in the direction of human suffering that Howard devoted himself; the Eastern plague, the manner of fighting this pestilence, the rational organization of quarantines, furnished material for his work during the last years of his life, and formed the object of his last journey. After having ended, in Smyrna, his first expedition of that kind, in 1776, when the pestilence scourged that city, Howard was subjected to a quarantine at Venice and returned to his country only to undertake soon a new voyage to the Orient across Russia. Because of the war with Turkey, Howard was obliged to stop at Kherson. That city had just been built, and it can easily be imagined in what state the pharmacies and hospitals were to be found. The fever made most frightful ravages in the town itself and in the vicinity. Howard devoted himself unremittingly to his vocation. He daily visited the hospitals, the prisons, and made excursions into the surrounding country, in spite of his advanced age and the precarious state of his health. It ended in his falling ill himself and dying the 20th of January, 1790, in the arms of Rear-Admiral Priestman, his friend and compatriot. Before breathing his last he requested to be buried at the Dauphiné Farm, with no tombstone but a sun-dial. The annals of Kherson affirm that the impression produced by the death of Howard, who had devoted his whole life to the relief of moral and physical infirmities of man, was extremely profound. All the convalescent population of the town flocked together to accompany his remains to their last resting place. At the head of the funeral cortége were the celebrated Admiral Mordvinow, married to an English lady, Rear-Admiral Priestman, and Major-General Koblet.

MONUMENT ON THE TOMB OF JOHN HOWARD.

NEAR KHERSON.

When in Kherson during 1879, I procured photographs of these two monuments, also information concerning their history. It appears from these documents that the first monument erected to Howard over his grave was due to Admiral Mordvinow and to General Koblet, also to Mr. Dauphiné, owner of the farm, who, according to this information, had furnished the necessary means. The face of the monument was ornamented by the bust of Howard.

Such was the origin of the monument to Howard, but in 1817 the minister of public instruction, Prince Alexander Galitzine, wrote the following to the late governor-general of southern Russia, Count of Langeron, at the time of his abode in St. Petersburg:

The illustrious Howard who died at Kherson in 1790, is buried 4 versts from the town. The base of the obelisk formerly placed over his grave was ornamented with his bust and an inscription enumerating the services he had rendered to humanity. There is now no longer a trace of anything which speaks of Howard. Fifteen years ago the inscription and the bust* were destroyed. The iron chains which protected the monument, and even the stone pillars which supported the chains, had been destroyed sometime previous. His Majesty, the Emperor, having authorized the restoration of this monument, requests you, Monsieur the Count, to present to His Imperial Majesty your opinion upon the plan for the restoration of the said monument.

In July, 1817, the Count Langeron wrote to Prince Galitzine:

Howard desired to be buried far from human habitation, and asked that no monument be placed over his grave, unless it were a sun dial.†

The Count thought it would be very proper to erect a monument to Howard within the walls of the fortress of Kherson, near the church, at the right, where several monuments already had been placed in memory of men who have well deserved this honor from the country. This mark of gratitude will exhibit to the world the homage which Russia renders to virtue. The dying wish of Howard could be fulfilled by placing a sun dial at the summit of the monument.

The emperor ordered rebuilt over the grave of Howard a monument in the form of a sun dial.

The year following, in 1878, during the imperial journey in southern Russia, one of the first cares of His Majesty was to order the construction from the funds of the treasury of a monument worthy of Howard, "in memory of his unparalleled services rendered to humanity," and to erect this monument before the new prison, then in construction. It is known that this idea was suggested to the sovereign by Count Saint Priest, governor of Kherson, who also had a share in erecting the second monument in honor of Howard.

In 1820 the academy of fine arts received an imperial order to copy a plaster medallion sent by the Duke of Gloucester, and to place that copy in the obelisk raised at Kherson in honor of Howard. The obelisk

*This bust was modeled after a mask molded from the features of the dead, under the supervision of Admiral Mordvinow. The bust of Howard in the church of St. Paul in London is also modeled after this mask.

†Howard verbally expressed this desire in the presence of Rear-Admiral Priestman.

was already finished, and a place could not be found for this figure of Howard. Upon a further order from the emperor, the monument was rebuilt after designs made at Kherson by Mr. Guétchina, under the direction of Mr. Comstadius, governor of the province, who took upon himself part of the expense, in proof of his veneration for Howard, who had, in the house of Mr. Comstadius' father, taken the fever which ended his life. The restoration, begun in 1826, was nearly finished in the same year.

When Prince Worontzow, then governor-general of Odessa, also in 1826, was on his way to Moscow, an unknown person sent him a small sum of money, with a letter saying that the sum was intended for placing a sun dial on the monument of the illustrious philanthropist. Prince Worontzow also gave a certain sum for the same purpose. Many inhabitants of Odessa, informed of the fact, wished also to add to the subscription, which very soon resulted in an amount more than sufficient to enable them to order a sun dial from Italy.

It seems from the preceding that the monument over the grave of Howard is due to the initiative of his friends, while the idea of the memorial monument at Kherson belongs to the Emperor Alexander I.

Here is a description of the two monuments. The tombstone is a square pedestal in marble on a stone base. This pedestal measures three-fourths of an archine in width and one and one-half archines in height.

The inscriptions are:

North side: "Johannes Howard. Ad Sepulcrum stas Quisquis es Amici."

East side: "1790."

South side (in Russian): "John Howard. Whoever you may be, it is your friend who lies here."

The higher level of the pedestal is ornamented by a sun dial. Since 1851 the monument has been surrounded by a stone wall erected by General Illinsky, governor of Kherson, who made it at his own expense.

The second monument is erected at Kherson in the center of a great square, facing the prison. It is made of gray stone. Three large steps lead to the great pedestal surmounted by four Ionic columns. Upon these columns is a second pedestal, smaller and ornamented by a marble medallion of Howard in profile. Upon the two east and west sides facing the prison may be read in the panels the Latin inscriptions:

East side: "Alios salvos fecit."

West side: "Vixit Propter alios.

Upon the principal face of the great pedestal the Russian inscription reads: "Howard. Died the 20th of January, 1790, at the age of 65 years."

The monument is surmounted by an obelisk, ornamented on the south side by a sun dial. The total height of the monument is four *sagénes*

and two and one-half *archines*. The entire monument is surrounded by a stone wall with an iron gate. The interior of the walled inclosure is planted with trees.

The two monuments were restored in 1875 at the expense of the state.

INTERNATIONAL CONTEST UPON THE WORK OF JOHN HOWARD IN THE HISTORY OF PRISON REFORM.

The meeting of the Fourth International Prison Congress at St. Petersburg coinciding with the centennial of the death of John Howard, who died in 1790 at Kherson, the Imperial Government of Russia desires to render homage to the memory of the celebrated philanthropist in opening an international contest upon "The work of John Howard in the history of prison reform."

The works presented for the contest, printed or in manuscript form, should be written in Russian or French. Works in other languages are permissible on the condition, always, that they are accompanied by a French version.

Subjects to be discussed: (*a*) Biography of John Howard and review of his works; (*b*) Character of prisons at the time of John Howard, and an enumeration in detail of all innovations accomplished and projected by Howard in these institutions; (*c*) Influence of Howard's ideas upon the subsequent history of prison reform; (*d*) Bibliography of Howard's writings.

The works should be addressed by May 1 [13], 1890, at the latest, to the President of the Commission of Organization of the Fourth International Prison Congress at St. Petersburg, Théatre-Alexandre, General Administration of Prisons.

The works should be marked by a design. The authors will, moreover, send to the committee their names and addresses in a special envelope.

The committee for examining these works will be chosen by the Fourth International Prison Congress.

For the works which the committee consider satisfactory there will be awarded two gold medals (one of large size), silver medals, and honorable mentions.

The author who wins the large gold medal will receive, moreover, a prize of 2,000 francs. The work which wins the first prize will be inserted in the proceedings of the Fourth International Prison Congress. The right of reprinting will be reserved to the author.

The manuscripts and printed works which have not been taken away by their authors within 2 years will be destroyed.

The result of the contest will be published in the bulletin of the International Prison Commission and in the proceedings of the Fourth Congress.

The medal represented here, and which is the prize of the contest, has upon one side the portrait of Howard, a true copy of the figure which ornaments his monument at Kherson. The two mottoes, "Alios

salvos fecit" and "Vixit propter alios," are also taken from the monument.

The reverse side has the explanatory inscription: "In memoriam Johannes Howard, qui vitam suam miseris consecravit, egregio hujus operum historico." The space left vacant is reserved for the name of the laureate.

CENTENNIAL CELEBRATION OF THE DEATH OF JOHN HOWARD AT KHERSON.

The municipal council of Kherson, wishing to render homage to the memory of John Howard on the anniversary of his death, adopted at its session held January 9, 1890, the following resolutions:

1. On the anniversary of the death of John Howard, the 20th of January, will be sung a requiem at the local prison chapel, and a litany before the monument of Howard.

2. A special sum of money will be laid aside in order to better the food of the prisoners that day.

3. A marble tablet with inscription will be placed upon the wall of the house formerly occupied by Howard.

4. The street at the end of which stands the monument of Howard will be named "Howard street."

5. A telegram will be addressed to the "Howard Association," of London, as follows: "The city of Kherson in celebrating the centennial anniversary of the death of the eminent philanthropist, John Howard, who died and was buried at Kherson, make it their duty to inform the association which bears his name, and to express to it the sentiments which fill the whole city, sentiments of deep respect for the memory of the dead and of lively sympathy for the humane ideas which inspired his unceasing activity for the good of the unfortunate and of the prisoners."

On the 20th of January, at 11 o'clock in the morning, the civil and military authorities of the city, the mayor with the city council, the representatives from Zemstvo, the members of the Medical Society of Kherson, and many others met at the prison grounds. The prisoners occupied places designated for them.

The requiem ended, all the participants proceeded to the monument of Howard, which was decorated with garlands, and a wreath of immortelles around the medallion of the illustrious dead. Another wreath of flowers, varied with myrtle and laurel leaves tied with a white ribbon, bearing the inscription, "From the General Administration of Prisons, 1790–1890," ornamented the base of the monument. A great crowd of people of every class surrounded the monument.

That evening, in one of the parlors of the city hotel, in the presence of a large public assembly, was a solemn meeting of the Medical Society of Kherson, devoted to the memory of John Howard. The president of that society, Dr. Popper, read an outline of the life of Howard, and pronounced afterwards a discourse from which we translate the important parts:

The biographical outline, which I have just read, shows that John Howard sacrificed, in order to attain the end which he proposed, his fortune and the happiness of

a domestic life. He had taken upon himself the vicissitude of a homeless wanderer, full of privations and dangers of every kind, and finally in so doing sacrificed his life. In appreciating the activity of John Howard, we should not measure it after the standard of our present ideas; we should have before our eyes the character of the last century and epoch when he made himself the champion of humanity and justice towards prisoners. Time largely modifies ideas and customs. Thus, for example, we can not read without horror descriptions of the time of the Roman emperors, when criminals, condemned to serve as food to ferocious beasts, to lions and tigers, made merry the people gathered to witness those terrible sights. Likewise in the Middle Ages, public conscience was rarely shocked at the sight of human beings given up to the stake or submitted to frightful tortures. And at the time of Howard, tortures yet existed, and were found by him in practice in some prisons. What took place in the English prisons Howard has revealed to us. The condition of prisons on the continent was no better; moreover, they were so crowded that the unfortunate prisoners now and then were stifled for want of air. Also, Bequerelle reports that he came to the French prisons when the prisoners struggled to the death in order to open a passage as far as the window permitting them to inhale a breath of fresh air. According to Bentham, spite, the spirit of vengeance, and misery reigned in these schools of crime. Every prisoner naturally reached the level of the worst; the most downright vagrants communicated to others their wicked habits; the most clever taught his art to the others; the most depraved gave to all the character of his ignominy.

The contemporaries of Howard considered such a state of affairs as perfectly natural. It is not astonishing that, in order to change the ideas rooted for many centuries in the popular opinion upon prisons and prisoners, there was need of a man of an energetic, persevering, and fearless character, of a man imbued with a vivid faith in the sanctity of what he considered *truth*. Such was Howard. He devoted to his cause nearly half a century of work; he sacrificed everything for it, absolutely everything.

After speaking of the touching sympathy which Howard had won at Kherson, and relating the history of the monuments erected in his honor, and explaining the ideas contained in the eloquent inscriptions ornamenting these monuments, Dr. Popper ended his discourse by a warm appeal to those who were interested in prison reform to study the principles of that true friend of humanity.

CONFERENCE OF MANAGERS OF REFORMATORY AND INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTIONS IN GLASGOW.

There was a meeting of the managers of the reformatory and industrial institutions of England, Scotland, and Ireland, in Glasgow, June 10th to 13th, 1890, under the auspices of the Reformatory and Refuge Union. There were 300 delegates in attendance representing over 130 institutions and boards. A few of these institutions were for adult women, but with a few exceptions they were for children; some for boys, some for girls, and others for both. Their names generally indicated their object; as Aberdeen Girls' Reformatory, Ayr Industrial School, Birmingham Princess Alice Orphanage, Blackburn Boys' Home, Bridge of Weir Orphan Homes of Scotland, Bristol Red Lodge Girls' Reformatory (established by the lamented Mary Carpenter), Dublin Ragged Boys' Home, Edinburgh Original Ragged Schools, Edinburgh Robertson's Orphan Home, Glasgow Day Industrial Schools, Glasgow Discharged Prisoners Aid Society, Glasgow Homes for Destitute Children, Glasgow Industrial School for Girls, Glasgow Reformatory for Boys, Hardwick Reformatory, Kilmarnock Certified Industrial School, Liverpool Boys' Refuge, Liverpool Training Home for Girls, Manchester Girls' Home, London Boys' Farm Home, Church of England Homes for Waifs, Home for Little Boys, Reformatory and Refuge Union, Homes for Working Boys, Cripples' Home, East London Industrial School, Girls' Protective Home, Oxford Day Industrial School, Paisley Rescue Home, Perth Girls' School of Industry, Sheffield House of Help, Stirling Industrial School for Girls, Stirling Industrial School for Boys, Torquay Girls' Aid Society, Wellesley Training Ship, York Certified Boys' School and Yorkshire Union for Care of Young Girls. These are only a part. Glasgow had 18 institutions represented, Edingburg 13, Belfast 6, London 19, and it is well known that those which were represented were only a small part of the great number of institutions for children which exist in Great Britain, and especially in the larger cities. The large number of well-established and successful institutions for children in Great Britain is a pleasing proof of the general effort in child-saving work.

The writer was able to attend the first two days of this conference while on his way to St. Petersburg. He is greatly obliged to the Lord Provost for courtesies and attention which greatly added to the pleas-

ure of his visit. The first meeting was held June 10 at 9.30 a. m. in Merchants Hall, West George street. There was a large attendance. The Hon. John Muir, Lord Provost of Glasgow, presided. Among the noted persons present were the Rev. Dr. Burns, of the Cathedral; Archbishop Eyre; Sheriff Spens; Sir James Carmichael, Bart.; Mr. John Morrison and Mr. William Clark, of the Glasgow Juvenile Delinquency Board; Mr. James Nicol, City Chamberlain; members of the Glasgow School Board, etc.

In a brief address the Lord Provost welcomed the delegates to Glasgow and assured them that everything would be done to facilitate their labors and to render their stay in Glasgow pleasant and interesting. At the same time he extended to the delegates an invitation for himself and Mrs. Muir to a banquet at the new City Chambers for that evening.

Mr. A. J. S. Maddison, the well-known and efficient secretary of the Reformatory and Refuge Union, was the secretary-general and one of the principal managers of the conference. Mr. W. E. Hubbard, the able president of the Reformatory and Refuge Union, was also present, and greatly aided in the discussions and at times was presiding officer of the meetings.

The first paper read and discussed was by Mr. John Bowden, of the Boys' Farm Home of East Barnet, and the subject was: "What methods should we adopt in our schools for educating children in the right use of their leisure time?"

The address was quite lengthy, yet mainly practical. He saw in the misuse of leisure time, especially by the children of the poor, the source of many evils. During leisure time the habits of drinking, indulgence in low amusements, squandering hard-earned money in betting and gambling, etc., were rapidly developed. The polytechnics, libraries, gymnasia, swimming baths, recreation grounds, etc., do not reach the lowest. In their squalid homes and low associations æsthetic qualities do not thrive. We must work this waste material of humanity into useful and intelligent citizens. Most of our institutions are industrial, and the lives of the children are made up of three parts: their working life, school life, and home life. It is necessary to train the child to work, and he must be given intellectual training. But to give a child such a training as will lead him to employ his leisure time in a manner profitable to himself is a task seldom successfully achieved.

After these theoretical statements he went on to say that the education for leisure should be of two kinds—*first*, actual instruction given with this end in view in school and work time; *second*, such habits as are acquired by the practice of wholesome pursuits in recreation time. In the former would be instruction in reading, music, drawing, natural science in school time, and gardening, keeping poultry, bees, etc., in work time. In the latter, cycling, cricket, foot ball, and athletic games generally, keeping pets, for outdoors; chess, draughts, etc., for

indoors. On the value of each named he spoke at length. In one place he says: "All innocent games, even playing cards, should be countenanced, if not encouraged." As to Sabbath leisure, he said: "Allot a fair portion of the day to public worship and to instruction in religion for your children, and let the remainder be disposed of in any kind of harmless recreation suitable to your circumstances," such as music for indoors, walking or visiting friends for outdoors.

For the girls he advised reading poetry, biography, fairy tales, music, drawing, and embroidery. He also strongly advised dancing, as one of the healthiest, most natural, most universal, and most ancient of all physical exercises for women; that it was as useful for the girls from the slums as for the highest ladies of the land. In conclusion the speaker summarized his argument as follows:

> That many of the chief evils which affect society in general are the results of the misuse of leisure time, and, further, that this misuse is, in its turn, the result of a want of training and a knowledge of how to use leisure profitably; and, therefore, that it is most desirable that in all institutions for the training of the young—particularly of the poorer classes—special means should be taken to provide children with adequate instruction for the pleasurable and profitable use of their future leisure.

This address brought out an animated discussion, led by Mr. T. Adcock, superintendent of the Leicester Industrial School, and followed by Mr. Joseph Hassell, A. K. C., educational inspector of the Reformatory and Refuge Union; Rev. Brooke Lambert, vicar of Greenwich; Mr. Thomas Jackson, superintendent of the Ardwick Green Industrial School of Manchester; Mr. A. Thompson, superintendent Greenoch Industrial School; Mr. J. C. Galloway, of Glasgow; Mr. Dickson, superintendent Industrial School, Dundee; Major Collier, of London, and Mr. John Morrison, of Glasgow. The speakers in the main supported the views of Mr. Bowden, stating other means employed in their institutions to occupy leisure time. Mr. Galloway expressed views very strongly against dancing for the children in their charge; that it puts in them "a love for that which leads to such terrible evils as dancing undoubtedly does." Cricket, chess, draughts, were generally commended, and a few indorsed the use of cards. Mr. Jackson said "that every boy who had beat him at chess was doing well in the world."

The Rev. Mr. Lambert said that 24 years ago when a teacher he asked his boys to write an essay on amusements for outdoors and indoors in winter. A boy of the sixth grade wrote:

> Indoor amusement, why, toasting bread, roasting chestnuts, and knocking nails into walls. Outdoor amusements, why, skating and sliding and throwing snowballs.

He favored the proper use of amusements for leisure time, and said while we used them in a Christian manner we should not fear them because they have been abused.

It is worthy of note that the time given to the discussion of the papers and the interest taken in such discussions were greater at this confer-

ence than are usually given at like conventions in America. With us very valuable papers are often read, with little or no discussion following.

The next paper for the day was by Miss Emily Janes, honorary organizing secretary of the Yorkshire Union Ladies' Association for the Care of Young Girls. Her subject was "Schools for special cases." She estimated that in Great Britain there were in homes and schools, voluntary and certified, 200,000 waifs and strays, the flotsam and jetsam of a corrupt civilization. The school board of London has sent 11,000 of these to the state industrial schools. She set forth at some length the condition of the worst of this class which can not be reached by ordinary means, and advised special schools for their treatment, naming some where this system had been successful.

This paper was discussed by Mr. E. W. Thomas of London, Mr. Wm. Mitchell of Glasgow, Sheriff Spens of Glasgow, and by the Rev. Mr. Lambert, after which the following resolution was adopted:

When children have been shown to be of such moral depravity as to contaminate others, it is desirable that they should be provided for in special institutions.

Those who discussed the paper generally indorsed the views of Miss Janes, giving interesting incidents to illustrate what had come within their experience.

Another paper was read at this session. The title was: "How can the industrial schools of the country practically aid in the advancement of technical education?" This was by Mr. Joseph Hassell, A. K. C., and he confined his remarks to institutions for boys. He presented the importance of technical education and showed the advantages of skilled labor in Germany, Belgium, Austria, and Switzerland. In this he saw one of the reasons of successful foreign competition and considered its cause lay in the defective curriculum of the English elementary schools. A boy is taught so that he may pass in class subjects, but the laboring boy if he handles coke is not taught that there are gas coke and foundry coke, and how they should be severally handled. The average school life is too short for training both the mind and the hand. On the continent the time is supplemented by evening schools, which he described as conducted in France, Switzerland, Germany, and Austria. He stated at some length how skilled labor could be taught in the common schools. As to the industrial schools he stated that out of 192 such schools for boys only 68 taught carpentry, 16 cabinet work, leaving 108 with no opportunity to use common tools. In 76 only wood-chopping was carried on; 10 of these are in London and 28 in the provinces. In only 33 is there any provision for working in iron and less for working in stone. The speaker advised:

1. The discontinuance of wood-chopping, except for the school, and the substitution of carpentry.

2. In every school the boys should be taught the use of the common tools of the carpenter, the plasterer, and the painter.

3. The more simple kinds of metal work should be introduced. The

introduction of such work need not incur great expense. Handy men should be engaged as labor masters, who should instruct and supervise the boys in their work.

This paper was discussed by Mr. A. B. P. Collins, superintendent of the Home for Working Boys, Long Acre, London; Mr. Gregory, superintendent of Homes for Little Boys, Farningham; Sheriff Spens, Glasgow, and by Mr. Hassell. At the conclusion the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Having regard to the recognized deficiency in the technical training of the young at the present day it is desirable that the increased facilities for such training should be given to the boys in the industrial schools of the country.

After the close of this session the members of the conference visited the Mossbank Industrial School, whither they were conveyed by omnibuses, and had luncheon. After this they were conveyed to the Parkhead Roman Catholic Reformatory for Boys and then to the Roman Catholic Girls' Reformatory and Penitentiary at Dalbeth, where tea was served. At the latter place the children entertained their visitors with songs and recitations. The delegates returned to the city at 5 o'clock.

The reception of the Lord Provost Muir and Mrs. Muir took place in the evening in the new city chambers. There were about 600 guests present, including many prominent gentlemen representing various interests in the city. The new municipal building in its exterior and interior is a marvel of strength and architectural beauty, and would be an ornament and credit to any city. Glasgow is essentially a city of stones; solid, real, and substantial as Scotch character. Even with the cheaper labor of Great Britain this city hall cost about $3,000,000. The entrance hall, the great stairway of colored marbles, the side walls of colored marbles, were of surpassing beauty. The writer did not see in the palaces of Russia or of western Europe any such work that was superior. The lord provost said some considered the city had expended too much, and yet all were proud of this great monument to Scotch skill, taste, and financial ability. During the banquet most excellent music was provided in the great stairway hall by the band of the First Lancashire Fusiliers.

The guests were received in the Satinwood Salon by the Lord Provost and Mrs. Muir, and afterwards passed into the large banqueting hall, where refreshments were served. The lord provost while receiving was in his official robes. The evening was spent in looking over the building and in conversation until 9 o'clock, when the guests assembled in the council chamber, where under the presidency of the lord provost addresses were made by Sir John Neilson Cuthbertson, Mr. Gallaway; Mr. Murray, Mr. M'Keith, Mr. A. A. Ferguson, and by Mr. Randall who explained the objects of the International Prison Congress and various American methods for the protection and care of dependent and delinquent children.

On motion, a cordial vote of thanks was accorded to the Lord Provost

and his lady, who were congratulated on the very successful nature of their entertainment. The lord provost expressed his thanks for the vote and the pleasure it afforded himself and Mrs. Muir to be present.

In the early part of the second day a number of the delegates visited the Abercromby Street Industrial Schools (Roman Catholic) and the Day Industrial Schools at Greene street, Patterson and Rose streets.

At 11 o'clock about 200 delegates left the city by train for the Bridge of Weir, to visit the Orphan Homes of Scotland. From the Bridge of Weir the party was conveyed to the homes, a distance of 2½ miles, over a beautiful country of green hills and valleys. This home is a little village of English cottages, two stories high, with steep roofs; each building being of a different style, artistic and attractive. It reminds one of the home for little boys at Farningham, near Kent, England. The streets run in various directions, so that the buildings are scattered, relieving the house of institutional appearance.

The guests were received at the church of the home by Mr. Brydon on behalf of the principal manager, Mr. Quarrier, who was absent in Canada. In the course of his remarks he stated that their system was the family one, that they had 24 cottages, each of which held about 30 children. Besides these they had the church, the schools, the workshop, the general store, and the invalid's home for children of infirm health. He said that Mr. Quarrier began this work about 20 years ago with one child. There are now between 600 and 700 in the school. The speaker had been with Mr. Quarrier from the beginning. When he first met him there were only 3 children in a back room in a lane in Glasgow. They have also a training ship for boys for the mercantile marine. The buildings had cost about $500,000, and the money had come without collectors, and simply in answer to prayer.

The delegates in groups of 30 each visited the different homes, after which luncheon was provided in the upper hall of the schoolroom, Mr. Cameron Corbett, M. P., presiding. After this Mr. Hubbard proposed a vote of thanks to Mr. Quarrier, saying:

We thought last night that we had seen something the like of which we had never seen before. I do not think we could express our admiration of the municipal buildings of Glasgow. A lady from England said to me that until last evening she had never been able to fully appreciate the feelings of the Queen of Sheba when she was invited to see the glory of the surroundings of Solomon. It will be a long time before we forget the pleasant entertainment we met with last night at the reception given by the lord provost of Glasgow, and I am sure we shall never forget our visit to Mr. Quarrier's homes. He seems to have realized my ideas of what a home should be, where everything should be so adapted, that we should raise a child not only step by step up the ladder of life and leave him where the least breath of adversity may push him down to the bottom, but should give him such a start in life that, humanly speaking, there will be little chance of failure in after life. Speaking in the name of the visitors here to-day, I wish every possible success in the future to Quarrier's homes. I hope we shall take to ourselves the secret of that success which has hitherto attended them—pure and unadulterated faith in God's mercy.

The company then divided into two sections, in rooms connected with the church, where various papers were read and discussed. Among the subjects were "Reformatory and Industrial School Bills," by Mr. G. A. Miller, honorable secretary Perth Girl's School of Industry; and a paper by Mrs. Eliza A. Walker, "On the Need of some special Provision for the Training and Employment of Boys and Girls who are Feeble-minded (not imbecile) or Infirm in Body;" a paper by Mrs. Flather, of Sheffield, on "Temporary Shelters;" and a paper by Rev. James S. Fletcher, D. D., chaplain and secretary to the Dublin By Lamp-light Institution, on "Our Female Penitentiaries: Can they be Made Self-supporting?" These papers were interesting, instructive, and very fully discussed.

This concluded the exercises at the Quarrier homes, and the guests, returning to the Bridge of Weir, returned to Glasgow by rail, and were taken in omnibuses to Mary Hill Industrial School, where they had tea, visited the institution, and then met in the chapel, where they were entertained with excellent singing by the girls. An address was delivered here by Mr. Hubbard, after which Mr. Wm. Mitchell read a paper on "Day Industrial Schools;" Mr. A. Falconer on "Emigration;" Dr. Sutherland, of Glasgow, on "Our Methods of Dealing with Habitual Offenders—Failure of Existing Enactments." The papers were discussed at length, closing the session for the day; after which the delegates were conveyed back to the city. The day in every respect had been interesting and profitable. The papers and discussions were generally commendable for the absence of mere theory, for their practical bearing founded on facts and experience, for their absence of rhetorical effort, and for the plain and direct manner in which they were presented.

The writer was unable to remain after the first two days. What has been given will show something of the general character of these national conferences.

The third day was occupied by a visit to the Cumberland Industrial School, a sail through the locks and around the training ship *Cambria*, a reception in the corporation galleries, where papers were read by Mr. John Lawson, of Glasgow, on "How to Help Male Discharged Prisoners;" by Mr. John Bowden, of Barnet, on "The Advantages of the Provident Benevolent Fund;" and by Dr. Wilson Bruce on "Medical Hints to Managers of Institutions." These papers were ably discussed by various speakers.

The fourth and final day was well employed by a visit to Edinburgh and the Original Ragged Industrial Schools at Liberton, luncheon at the Edinburgh Exhibition, excursion to the Trossachs, a visit to the Forth Bridge and to the training ship *Empress*, the best of its class

These conferences are held once in 3 years. Former ones have been in London, Bristol, Liverpool, Dublin, and Edinburgh in 1875. Of this conference the secretary general says: "Within a period of 3 days from June 10 to June 13, 1890, the 300 workers from the Reformatory and

Preventive Institutions of Great Britain, who assembled at Glasgow collected an amount of information and experience which they might not otherwise have acquired in as many years. The hints and suggestions which were imparted can not all be recorded here, for it was not alone in the formal discussions that ideas were exchanged, but quite as much, and probably even more, in the course of social intercourse of friend with friend; for the bond of a common work—a united effort to save perishing women and children in the love and strength of a divine Savior—is also the bond of sympathy and friendship. Common difficulties were quietly discussed, and respective merits of different methods of work, on both sides of the border and in Ireland and America, were deliberately weighed in the course of informal conversations between delegates from these different parts of the world."

In no country can preventive work be shown to have had such an influence on the reduction of pauperism and crime. The statistics show a most remarkable decrease. The labors of the men and women engaged in these conferences, in their institutions, in their influence on the general public and on legislation by parliament, have had very much to do to secure this result. The history of prevention and reformation in Great Britain records the names of Mary Carpenter, the Hills, Barwick Baker, and many others who have devoted their lives for the elevation and rescue of the children of the poor. The good following their labors can now be seen and known by all.

NEW OR VIBORG PRISON, IN ST. PETERSBURG, ON THE NEVA.

THE NEW OR VIBORG PRISON IN ST. PETERSBURG.

Elsewhere in this report reference is made to the new prison in the Viborg quarter, on the Neva, as one of the most perfect prisons in Europe. The accompanying plans and exterior view of the prison will give some idea of its extent and its interior arrangements. It is for 1,200 prisoners, and is mainly on the plan of the Philadelphia system; the prisoners working in their cells, which are roomy, well lighted and ventilated. It will be seen that the cells are on the outside and the corridors are in the center, thus affording sunlight and better ventilation. For a fuller description the following is translated from the French edition of Mr. Wraskoy's account of the Russian prisons from 1879 to 1889:

The necessity of a prison for short-term convicts has been recognized since 1860, when the wine warehouse of the epoch of the Empress Anna, in the Viborg quarter, was adapted to that purpose. But in time this prison fell into a state of entire disorganization, and, notwithstanding the improvements made in 1883, it could not be maintained any longer. In proceeding with the preliminary studies for the construction of a new prison in St. Petersburg, which in conformity to the scale of punishments recently adopted, should be on the cellular plan, the general administration took into consideration that besides the 700 prisoners in the old prison, from 150 to 200 others underwent imprisonment in the police quarters of the capital; and, finally, that in the prisons in the cities near St. Petersburg there was an equal number of prisoners. Consequently, in compliance with the ruling idea which prevailed in the application of the new system, viz, the centralization of the places of detention, the general administration concluded to construct in St. Petersburg a cellular prison for 1,150 inmates. This decision has been supported by the fact that the cellular system having had only a limited study in Russia it was preferable that the first essay in its application upon a great scale in Russia should take place in the capital, which would serve, in the meantime, as a school of technical education of prison management.

Considering the mode of construction, the general administration preferred to have the work directed by a special committee organized for that purpose, partly on account of the necessity of constructing the new building on the land occupied by the old prison, which must be demolished to give it place, and principally so as to diminish as much as possible the expenses. This project with approximate designs was submitted to the Emperor, who gave his sanction March 8, 1884. Upon this a construction committee was constituted under the supervision of the chief of the general administration, composed of Private Councilor E. J. Gibert, professor of architecture, assistant of the chief of the general administration of prisons, the attaché architect of the administration, one of the inspectors of the administration selected by the chief, and the chief of the bureau of construction of the general administration.

The construction of the prison was confided to one of the members of the committee, Mr. A. O. Tomischko, academician and architect of the general administration.

On account of the sickness of Mr. Bernhardt the presidency of the committee was confided to Mr. Gilbert, and in the place of the latter Mr. R. A. Gedike, professor of architecture and state councilor, was named.

Besides, in accord with the controller of the Empire, a representative of the administration was invited to act with the committee, and a regulation established to control the movements of the funds relative to the work.

In virtue of this regulation the controller of the Empire, besides his other rights and ordinary duties, must—

(1) Make a preliminary verification of all estimates before the expenses are incurred; that is to say, of all contracts, arrangements, and definite accounts with all contractors and bidders, as well as the assigment of accounts for the payment of money;

(2) Verify the amount of materials prepared and work done; and

(3) Delegate to his representative authority to assist at the letting the work to the contractors on competition.

Concerning the works themselves, which were inaugurated in May, 1884, it is proper to state as follows: In order to reach the greatest possible economy in the construction the committee adopted the system of division of contracts among commercial houses the best known for their financial ability and their thorough exactness in complying with their contracts. To demolish the ancient buildings as well as for certain earthwork and other labor the prisoners themselves were employed. Also the prison shops and the correctional establishments of St. Petersburg were put in requisition to manufacture doors, windows, locks, door trimmings, bells, iron beds, kitchen utensils in silver, furniture for the cells and the prison office, and mattresses. Very special attention was given to questions relative to lighting and for the water system.

It is known that in most of the prisons of Western Europe, for example in Holland, electric lighting has been adopted as offering the greatest advantages in an administrative point of view; for besides the facilities which it presents for the central regulation, it has the merit of not tainting the air nor smoking, and it furnishes a light sufficiently strong, and finally one that would not cause a fire. Seeking the best mode of lighting the new prison, the construction committee discarded entirely kerosene light, which after calculations made would cost 17,000 rubles annually, which would be less expensive than the other modes of lighting, but it would bring with it great inconvenience, which could not be estimated if we consider that a building such as the prison of St. Petersburg would require the daily lighting, at the same hour, of 1,544 lamps, of which 900 would be in the cells. It remained therefore to choose between gas made from oil, or naphtha, or electric light. The studies on this subject demonstrated that the first expenses in the establishment of electric light would be 66,000 rubles and the annual running expenses would be 24,600 rubles. On the other side the expenses of the establishment of oil gas would reach 50,000 rubles and the annual expense would be 47,245 rubles. Consequently the increase of the expenses of the first establishment where recourse is had to electric light (16,000 rubles) would be amply compensated the first year of its operation. As to lighting with naphtha gas the expenses of the plant at first would be 51,000 rubles and the annual expenses would be 29,333 rubles. Consequently the increase of expenses in this case, as well of 15,000 rubles in the plant in case of the adoption of electric light, would be overcome, thanks to the annual saving of 4,700 rubles in the running expenses.

Having for these reasons chosen the method of lighting by electricity the committee took into consideration that the necessary steam engines in the prison could be equally employed to furnish water for the prison. This would entail an expense of 2,500 rubles for a pump, an annual expense of 1,000 rubles, instead of 3,320 rubles which would go to pay the society which would have furnised the water. Besides

this a saving of nearly 600 rubles would be obtained, thanks to the employment of steam to melt the snows about the building.

At the time of preparing this report the construction work of the prison of St. Petersburg is in the following condition:

1. The following are completed and already occupied:

(*a*) The entrance building, two stories, containing the quarters for the guards, and the personnel of supervision, and a reception room for the public waiting for admission.

(*b*) Three buildings with two stories and basement, for lodgings for the personnel of the administration, and for the supervision service.

(*c*) One building with four stories and basement, for cellular imprisonment, in which are placed 472 cells, besides the part occupied for storage or serving otherwise the needs of the service.

(*d*) Three hospital departments, which have before existed, but which have been re-made in the construction of the new prison. One of them was removed from another place. All three have been furnished with stoves* with main pipes, and all the interior has been changed.

(*e*) The kitchen and machine section. There will be found the kitchen and bakery, with the storage for provisions; the laundry, with the dryhouse and the storeroom for linen. In the machine section will be found the kettles, the engines, the electric dynamos for lighting, and the pump to furnish water for the prison.

(*f*) The baths.

2. The building intended for the religious and administrative service has been ordered by the administration, but only the basement and the first story are occupied. In the basement are the storerooms and the place where prisoners are delivered and where they are washed and clothed. In the first story will be found the prison office, the offices of employés, and a parlor. The upper story contains the chapel for the school, which is not entirely completed. In the chapel the floors have been laid and preparatory work has been done for completion of the walls. The iconostase has been presented by Mr. Tufiline, merchant of Kazan, and is now in the storehouse of the committee of construction. The holy images and mural paintings have been presented by Mr. Sadikow, artist.

3. The second building for cellular detention and in the basement for night separation for guarding prisoners in common will be probably completed sufficiently in the coming September or October to be occupied. There is yet painting to be done, and bells, doors, and beds to be placed.

4. There are nearly constructed:

(*a*) A stone building of two stories to be occupied by those having contagious diseases.

(*b*) A similar building for a dispensary, a reception room, and one for medical treatment, a room for disinfecting and one for washing linen on the first story, and one on the second story for prisoners confined for debt.

5. There remains yet to be constructed a building for the reception of the dead, with a chapel and a part of the exterior wall on Simbirsk street.

The total expense for the construction of the prison of St. Petersburg is 1,396,849 rubles.

Among the buildings belonging to the prison of St. Petersburg we have mentioned the three hospital departments. They contain thirty-eight beds each. They were constructed in 1882, when it was found impossible to leave the prisoners longer in the ancient prison of the city, called the Chateaux of Lithuanie hospital, which served

* A Russian stove is generally about 3 feet in diamater, and 7 or 8 feet high, the outside being covered with porcelain tile, bent to conform to the side which is round. It is more like an upright furnace in the room.

not only for the needs of this prison but to receive the sick prisoners of the transfer prison and of the police. These hospitals have been constructed by the architect of the general administration of prisons, and cost, including the expenses for the improvement of the interior, 27,941 rubles.

To the prison of St. Petersburg, as a special institution, belongs the section for young prisoners.

Until 1884 the latter were confined in the police prison for the Koloma quarter, but in consequence of the necessity of increasing the places occupied by the police administration to lodge their inferior officers, they proceeded that year to construct a special edifice for the confinement of young delinquents on land located in the city in the Viborg quarter. Two wood buildings have been raised on stone foundation; one to contain fifty young people, including dormitories, shops, schools, dining rooms, and cells. The other contains the office and the dormitories of the employés. The construction was completed in 1886 and cost 30,464 rubles.

On the site occupied by the section for young offenders there are kitchen gardens in which the prisoners labor for the needs of the penitentiary establishments of the capital.

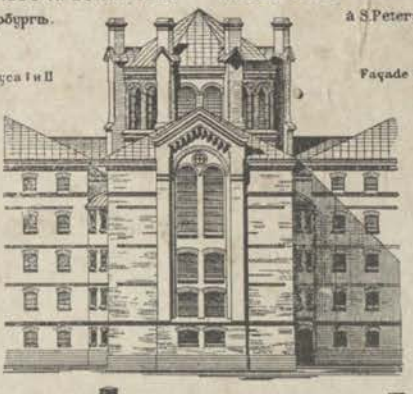
The kitchen gardens are surrounded by a wall in wood with stone posts, and a barrack has been constructed to serve for a resting place for prisoners when at work. All these buildings have been made by recourse to the labor of prisoners, and have cost 3,350 rubles, instead of 8,014 rubles, first estimated in the expenses.

This is the only description the writer has found of this notable prison, but the view herein and the ground plans will give a fair idea of its extent and its interior arrangements. Having gone over it quite thoroughly and compared views with specialists well acquainted with European prisons, it can be safely affirmed that there is probably no prison in Europe of better construction, arrangement, or better adapted to its purpose.

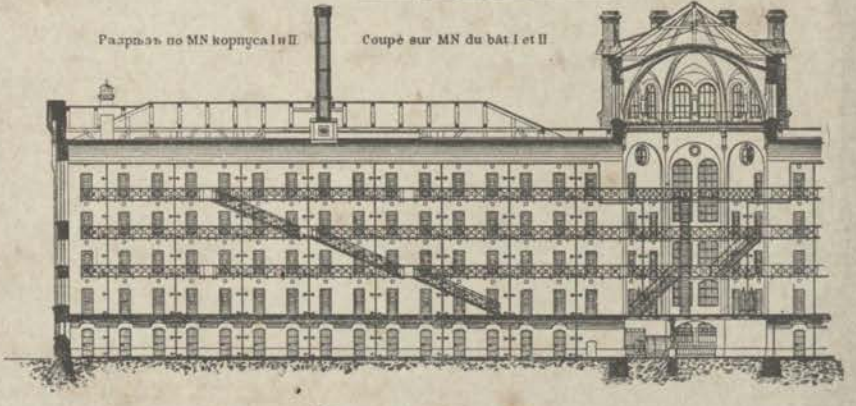
ПРОЕКТЪ ТЮРЬМЫ НА 1200 АРЕСТАНТОВЪ. PROJET D'UNE PRISON POUR 1200 DÉTENUS.

въ С.Петербургѣ. à S.Petersbourg.

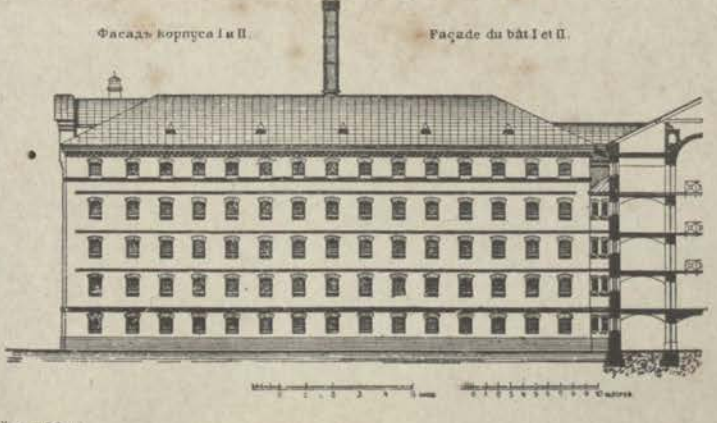
Фасадъ корпуса I и II. Façade du bât I et II.



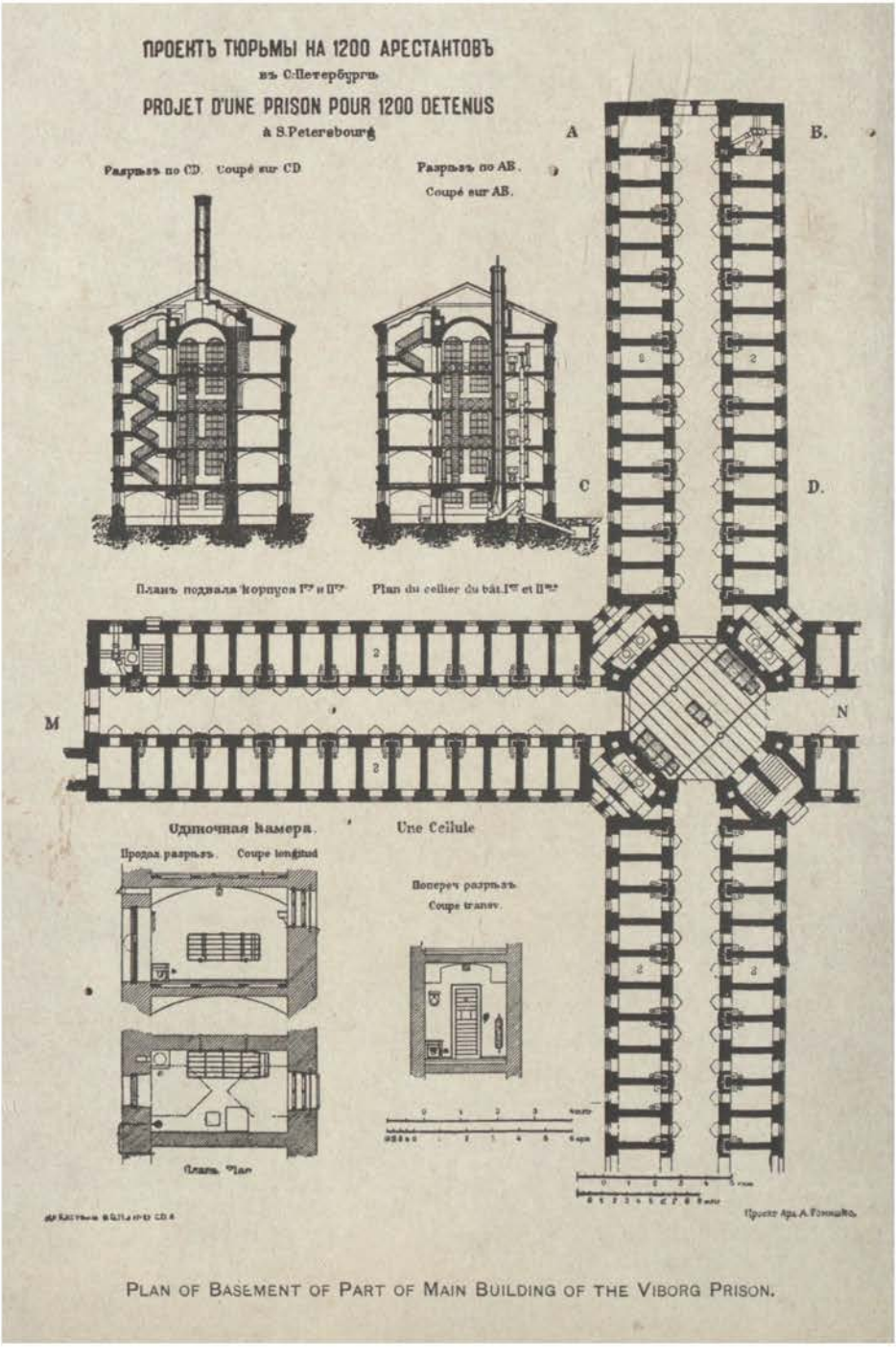
Разрѣзъ по MN корпуса I и II. Coupé sur MN du bât I et II



Фасадъ корпуса I и II. Façade du bât I et II.



EXTERIOR VIEWS OF SECTIONS OF MAIN BUILDING OF THE VIBORG PRISON.



PLAN OF BASEMENT OF PART OF MAIN BUILDING OF THE VIBORG PRISON.

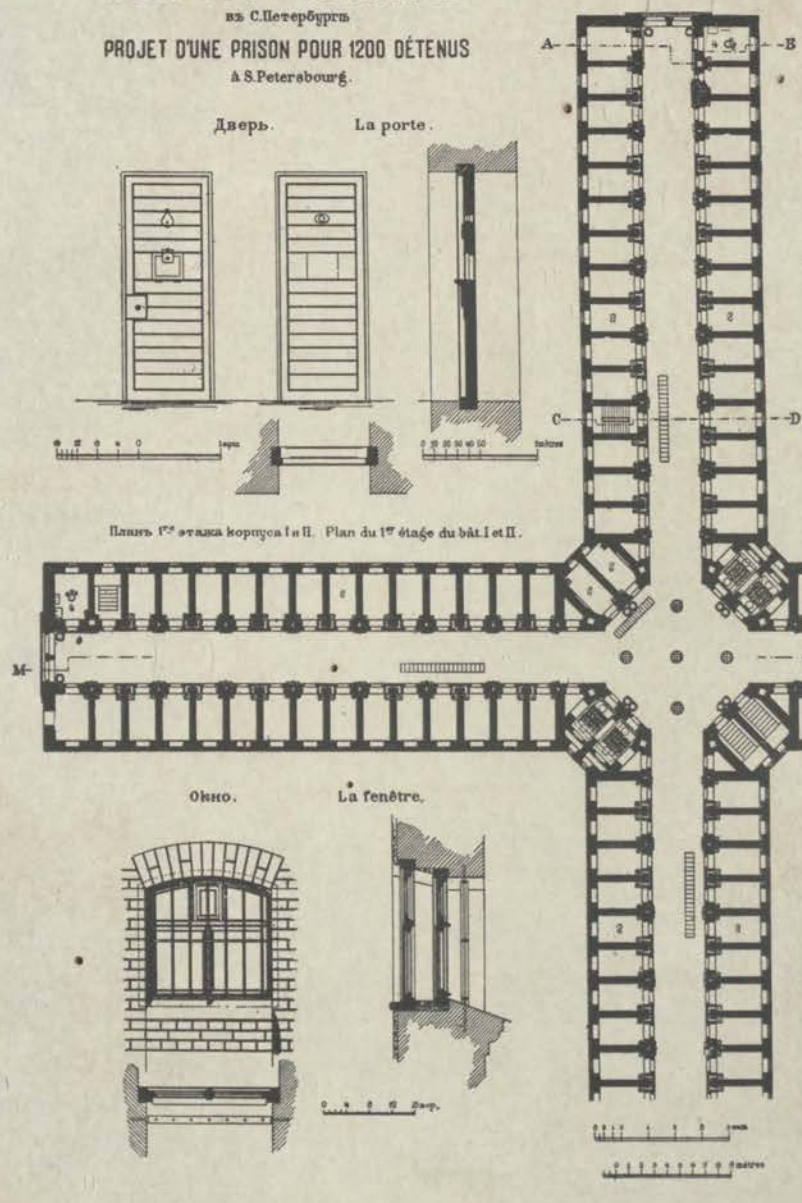
ПРОЕКТЪ ТЮРЬМЫ НА 1200 АРЕСТАНТОВЪ

въ С.Петербургѣ

PROJET D'UNE PRISON POUR 1200 DÉTENUS

à S.Petersbourg.

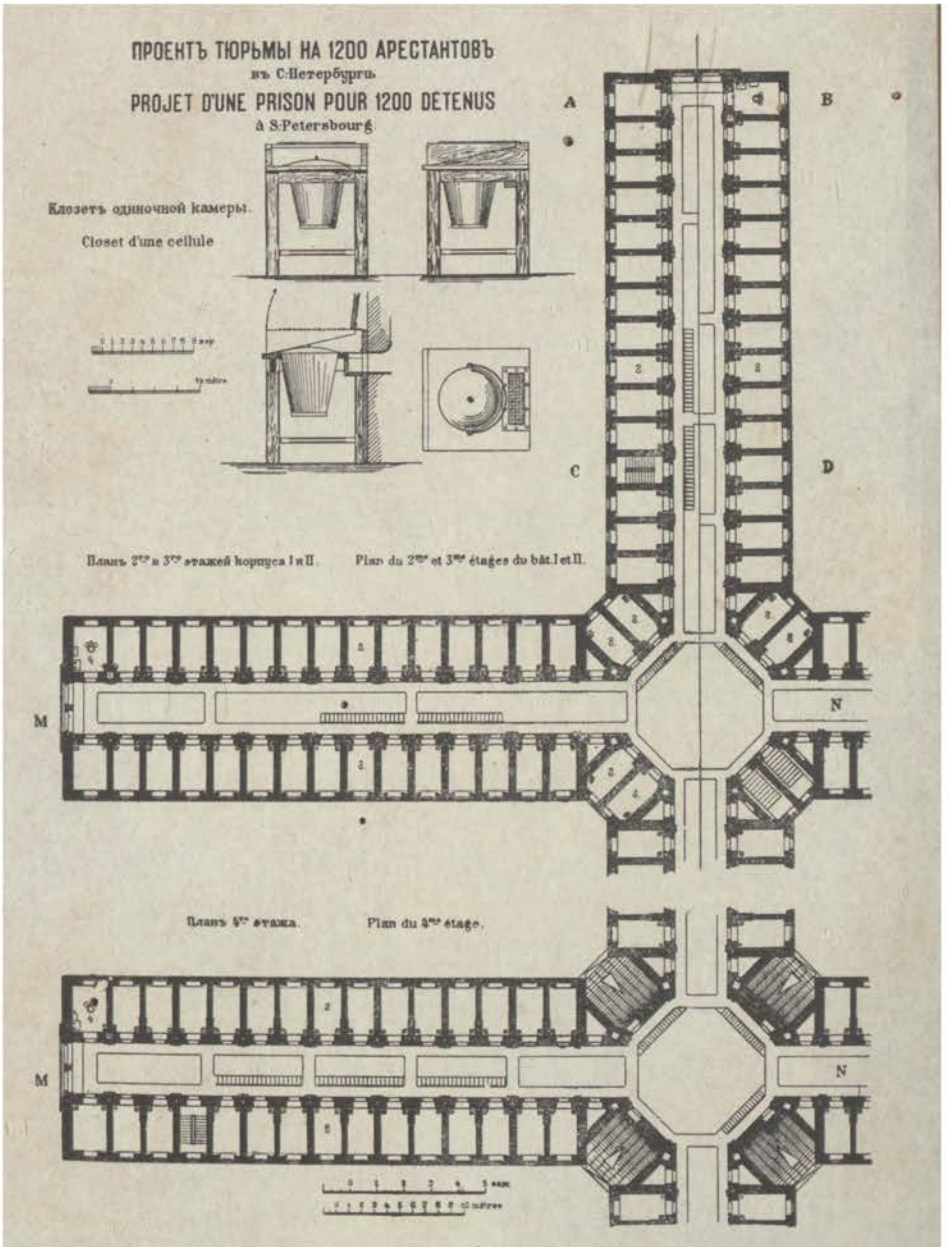
Дверь. La porte.



Планъ 1го этажа корпусовъ I и II. Plan du 1er étage du bât. I et II.

Окно. La fenêtre.

PLAN OF FIRST STORY OF PART OF MAIN BUILDING OF THE VIBORG PRISON.

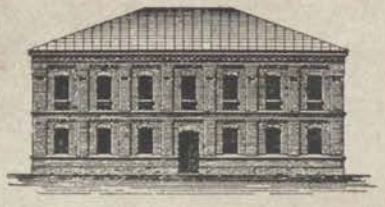


PLANS OF THE SECOND, THIRD, AND FOURTH STORIES OF THE VIBORG PRISON.

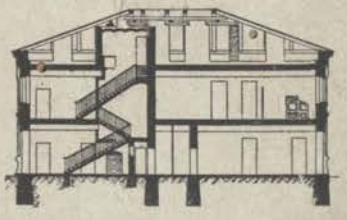
ПРОЕКТЪ ТЮРЬМЫ НА 1200 АРЕСТАНТОВЪ
въ С-Петербургѣ.

PROJET D'UNE PRISON POUR 1200 DÉTENUS
à S.Petersbourg.

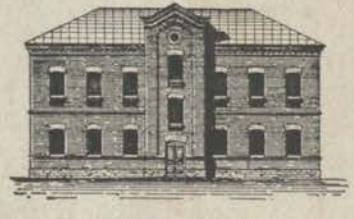
Фасадъ зданія L. Façade du bât. L.



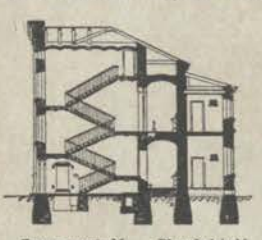
Разрѣзъ зданія L по CD. Coupé du bât. L sur CD.



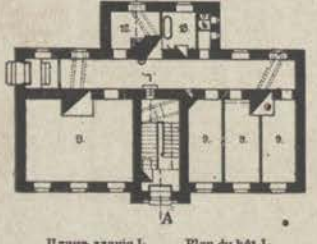
Фасадъ зданія M. Façade du bât M



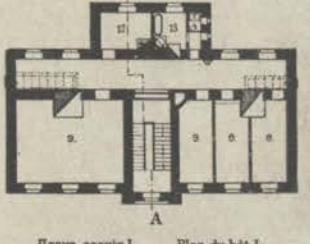
Разрѣзъ зданія M по AB. Coupé du bât. M sur AB.



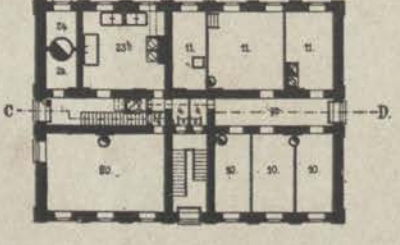
Планъ зданія M. Plan du bât. M.
1ый этажъ. B. 1er étage.



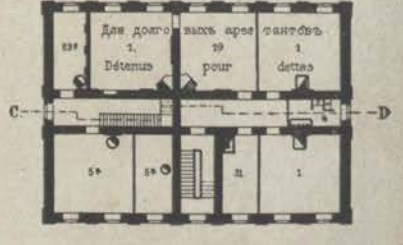
Планъ зданія M. Plan du bât M.
2ой этажъ. B 2me étage.

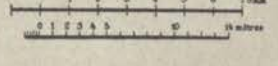


Планъ зданія L. Plan du bât. L.
1ый этажъ. 1er étage.



Планъ зданія L. Plan du bât. L.
2ой этажъ. 2me étage.





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Литография Ф. Л. Кольманъ. С.П.Б.

Проект. Арх. А. Томишко

PLANS OF TWO-STORY PARTS OF THE VIBORG PRISON.

MR. KOMORSKY, INSPECTOR-GENERAL OF THE PRISONS OF SIBERIA, INTERVIEWED IN PARIS, NOVEMBER, 1890.

While in St. Petersburg in June last as a delegate to the International Prison Congress from the United States I often met Mr. Demetrius Komorsky, the inspector-general of prisons in Siberia and of transportation and the commissary-general of the International Prison Exposition. Large credit is due him for the success of the exposition; his presence in the deliberations of the congress, and the actual part he took in the social features at the great banquets, on excursions, etc., added very much to the interest and pleasure as well as the comfort of the delegates.

Since the session of the congress he has visited France, and on the 24th day of November last attended the meeting of the Société Générale des Prisons, where he was called to speak on the subject of Russian transportation. It should be borne in mind that France has for many years transported prisoners to New Caledonia, and that French sympathies, to some extent, are consequently with the Russians in respect to the exile system.

Count Le Courbe, after some opening remarks, introduced Mr. Komorsky as follows:

Mr. PRESIDENT: I desire permission to present our thanks to Mr. Komorsky, inspector-general of prisons and transportation in Siberia, who is now present, for the kindness in which he has responded to our request to inform us upon the subject of transportation and upon Siberia, with which he is so well acquainted, giving us not a lecture but a conversation on this new subject.

I desire also, gentlemen, in your name and especially in the name of all Frenchmen who had the pleasure to know him in St. Petersburg, to congratulate him upon the decoration presented to him by the French Government, which could not have been more merited, and to assure him of our best wishes and of our appreciation of the care and kindness of which all were the object so far from our own country.

The PRESIDENT (Mr. Petit, councilor, etc.) said: Our council of direction also desires to say to you that it considered it to be its duty to profit by the presence of Mr. Komorsky in Paris, and has requested him to give us a conversation on Siberia, and upon the effects of transportation.

Mr. KOMORSKY. I am not in a condition to give a continuous lecture on account of my limited knowledge of the French language, and for the reason that I have not had sufficient time to prepare myself for the treatment of one of the most serious questions before so learned a society as yours. I am here at the request of the council of direction of the Société Générale des Prisons to give information upon transportation in Siberia. I shall then be happy to reply to all questions you wish to propose.

To enter on the subject in the most profitable manner, permit me at first to give you a geographical sketch of Siberia. Siberia, that is to say, the Asiatic portion of the Russian Empire, is divided for administrative purposes into twelve governments or provinces, which form Eastern Siberia, Central Siberia, and the provinces of the Amour River. The Russian penal code makes a precise distinction between criminal and correctional punishments. The criminal punishments are followed by the deprivation of common rights, the right of property, the right of family, and the right of condition. The wife of the condemned criminal has the right to a divorce, and the heirs inherit all property after sentence. This is civil death.

Correctional punishments do not have this effect. They are inflicted by confinement in prisons and correctional establishments similar to the places of confinement in France.

The punishments which are followed by civil death are included in two classes: transportation, properly called, that is to say, first, the transfer of convicts to Siberia with hard labor for a term or for life, and, secondly, the transfer of convicts to Central Siberia without obligatory labor. In the provinces of the Amour River, where transportation is centralized, we have only convicts condemned to forced labor, and those who have completed their punishment who remain there as colonists; that is to say, those who go from the first class into the second.

Eastern Central Siberia is for the second class of convicts which are transported. This transportation should not be confounded with that which exists in France. It is applied to criminals at common law, and consists in exile without forced labor, but a change of residence is prohibited.

In the provinces of Eastern Siberia, which reach to the Ural Mountains, transportation is concentrated. But this punishment is not pronounced, as in France, by the courts. In Russia it is applied by the councils of the communes which form a fiscal union. Thus when a member of the rural commune has been condemned to undergo a correctional punishment he is placed at the disposition of the commune, which decides whether it will retake him or exile him. In the latter case he is transported to a province in Eastern Siberia for 5 years. At the end of that time he has the right to seek permission from any commune to return, and, if granted, to reënter Russia. But frequently

he prefers to remain in Eastern Siberia, because the country is very rich and agriculture is extensive. This is one of the most important features of colonization in the provinces.

Transportation has existed in Siberia nearly 150 years. At first those who had been condemned for capital offenses were pardoned and sent there, and then they transported those condemned to hard labor, who went with their families after having undergone punishment with labor in European Russia. This transportation took place principally in the province of Transbaikal, because there were lands there very rich in silver mines. Later, gold mines were discovered. This is ancient Dahouria, which forms a part of the steppes of Mongolia, and whose population formerly consisted of Bouriates, a nomadic race which occupied itself neither with work in the mines nor with agriculture.

When, in 1689, the province of Dahouria, after a treaty with China, became a part of the Russian Empire, they began to work in the mines. Some Greeks sent especially by Peter the Great had established these works, and as there were not enough workmen they sent from time to time some peasants and convicts, seeking in that way to colonize the country for the purpose of seriously organizing the work of the mines. This is the way in which transportation was introduced into the legislation of the Empire.

But as the object of this transportation was only the development of the mines, it had not a special prison administrative character. Until 1869 the convicts were subject to the mining laws. They considered these individuals as persons obliged to work; they wished that they might labor for their own profit; they set at liberty those who had lost their strength, and they occupied themselves very little with penitentiary questions. In 1869 the prison administration was organized, but it met with a succession of difficulties which formerly were not presented. The first of these difficulties was the insufficiency of buildings for the detention of criminals, who under the mining administration were nearly all in liberation. To evade the incumbrance of prisons it was thought that the island of Saghalien, situated at the extreme east of Siberia, at the mouth of the Amour River, was well situated to be specially occupied by those condemned to hard labor without the necessity of confining them. But as this island belonged in common to Russia and Japan, it was not until the complete cession in 1875 that the Russian Government was able to take the necessary measures to organize a penal colonization in the island and to establish there a penitentiary administration.

In 1884 this administration was fully installed. The island of Saghalien represents now a province under a special governor, who attends exclusively to the administration general of prisons.

We have not in Saghalien many liberated colonists, and consequently we can use the island specially for penal colonization.

After the expiration of their imprisonment the convicts become trans-

ported colonists. They continue to receive their food rations for two years, clothing for the same time, about two and one-half acres of improved land, necessary farming tools, sometimes some cattle, that is to say, a cow and a horse when they can be procured.

Mr. JOLY. In Saghalien have you only a few discharged prisoners who are free colonists?

Mr. KOMORSKY. According to the statistics for the last year we have 3,200.

The PRESIDENT. How many are there under punishment?

Mr. KOMORSKY. Nearly 6,000.

The PRESIDENT. And in the rest of Siberia?

Mr. KOMORSKY. At hard labor at Nertschinsk we have 3,500 convicts and a great number of discharged convicts who are dispersed in the villages of Transbaikal. They live by the products of their labor, and are only obliged to procure a passport on a change of their residence. At the end of six years the exiled colonists have the right to have a passport authorizing them to travel anywhere in Siberia.

The PRESIDENT. To go out of it?

Mr. KOMORSKY. They must have a pardon to return to Europe. In Siberia, after ten years, they pass from the condition of transported colonists to the state of free colonists. They have the right to engage in commerce and in industrial pursuits; they are entirely free, passing fully from the prison control, and are no longer subject to the special provisions of the transportation code.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Does the working of the land support them, or is it necessary for the Government to aid them?

Mr. KOMORSKY. In the provinces of Transbaikal mining prevails, above all the washing of gold; the laborers are there in demand. The exiles have always the opportunity to work in the mines and to earn their living.

The island of Saghalien, as has been equally remarked in Guinea, has precisely the fault of not being able to furnish labor for all the discharged. We rejoice when, after having received the refuse of society, we succeed in having 20 to 40 per cent. of these men who, after their discharge, become farmers, honestly gaining their bread. There are even those who become rich, and occupy themselves in commerce and in industrial pursuits. As to those who are not capable of working on their own account, they are hired by the colonists. Sometimes the administration is obliged to come to their aid.

Mr. JOLY. Are there any women transported?

Mr. KOMORSKY. Yes; from 20 to 30 per cent., and it is exactly this figure we give to the number of men established more or less conveniently; that is to say, having their support.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Then are there marriages?

Mr. KOMORSKY. Yes; they are authorized.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. How can they marry since they are struck with civil death.

Mr. KOMORSKY. After condemnation, they regain little by little their civil rights, and at the expiration of their sentence they become more or less citizens. However, they can never recover their privileges of former condition. They never regain nobility nor the property which passed to their heirs.

The important point for the convict is the consent of the wife to follow him to Siberia. After the condemnation the wife is asked if she consents to accompany her husband to the Island of Saghalien. If she accepts, all the family rights of the condemned are retained and his wife cannot thereafter leave him without his consent.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. If she refuses?

Mr. KOMORSKY. If she refuses she has the right to a divorce.

The Pastor ARBOUX. Is transportation obligatory for women, or only for men?

Mr. KOMORSKY. All women sentenced to forced labor have been sent to Saghalien since 1883, if the condition of their health permitted.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. What is the climate of the island?

Mr. KOMORSKY. The climate is moderate, owing to the proximity of the sea; more moderate than the provinces on the coast. Yet it is more rude than the climate in the same latitude in Europe.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Is the cultivation of the ground possible?

Mr. KOMORSKY. All cereals are harvested.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Is wheat also raised there?

Mr. KOMORSKY. All kinds of wheat; March wheat and fall wheat. I have here some statistics which show the quantity of land cultivated. In 1885, there were only 871 hectares (a hectare is about 2½ acres) cleared and cultivated; in 1890, there were 3,000 hectares more. They cultivate also wheat, barley, and potatoes, the latter being produced in large quantities.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. How are the convicts transported; by land?

Mr. KOMORSKY. Always by the sea, embarking them at Odessa. They use boats of the volunteer fleet. From Odessa they pass through the Suez Canal and around Asia.

Mr. JOLY. How many free colonists have you in Saghalien?

Mr. KOMORSKY. There are scarcely any; only some merchants who go there to employ the convicts. Besides these there are some officers and soldiers.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Are there any Japanese?

Mr. KOMORSKY. The Japanese have abandoned the island; there are yet a small number of indigent nomads who live by hunting and fishing.

Mr. GRIPON. While the husband is undergoing punishment in Saghalien, what is the situation of the wife who has accepted transportation with him?

Mr. KOMORSKY. According to law, the man who is condemned to

hard labor must undergo one-third of his punishment in prison, but the island of Saghalien is considered as a prison surrounded by floating walls, so that each prisoner brought from Russia is set at liberty in Saghalien and his punishment consists only in obligatory work. He has the right to construct a small house, to improve a small tract of land and to work it on his own account. The convict receives a ration; and besides this, the family receives a monthly payment for the support of the children. There is nothing given to the women who have no children, but each child has the right to nearly 3 rubles a month, that is to say, $1.80 to $2 for its support. The general mortality is very limited; it may be estimated at 1¼ in 100 per annum.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Have you any escapes?

Mr. KOMORSKY. The escapes even in the island, reach 5 per cent. per annum, but the runaways are always obliged to return, and the escapes from the island are exceptional.

Mr. LE COURBE. Is it true that the fugitives who arrive at the Chinese frontier are returned by the Chinese who demand for them an increase of penalty for having polluted the Chinese soil?

Mr. KOMORSKY. That is not true, for the good reason that there are scarcely any Chinese on the frontier, which is much more of a desert than ours. There are there some wandering Mongolians named Boariotes, subject to Russia, who willingly pursue deserters, for they have three rubles for their arrest.

The Chinese prefer to kill the fugitive rather than to make for three rubles the voyage from Nertschinsk, that is to say at least 125 miles.

Mr. JOLY. What appear to be the relations between the discharged prisoners and the people?

Mr. KOMORSKY. For the seven years I have been in Siberia I have observed that their relations at first are usually sympathetic, that then they become a little strained, and that finally, with the increase of the free population, there arises a certain hostility. When the free population increases and as the free workmen seek for occupation, they naturally find themselves in competition with the exiles who are remunerated less than they are. It is an economic question.

In the Island of Saghalien and in the provinces of the Amour River, they gladly receive as laborers not only the discharged, but the fugitives.

Mr. JOLY. It is a question of supply and demand.

Mr. KOMORSKY. In the province of Transbaïkal there is already discontent from receiving discharged prisoners. Central Siberia raises its voice on this subject and petitions are addressed to the governors of the provinces.

Mr. JOLY. Is it not for cause that transportation, properly called, has been to a great extent abandoned?

Mr. KOMORSKY. You speak of a projected law on transportation.

As for transportation, properly called, it will continue in the provinces of the Amour River.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Is the island of Saghalien large?

Mr. KOMORSKY. It has 68,000 square kilometres; that is to say, it is about the size of Greece or Bulgaria. It is crossed by mountain ranges which attain an elevation of 200 to 300 metres. The highest mountain is 400 metres high, but there are no glaciers.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. When a discharged convict commits a crime or a misdemeanor, by whom is he tried, by the civil or military authority?

Mr. KOMORSKY. He is tried by the civil authority.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Even in the island?

Mr. KOMORSKY. For small offenses against the regulations of the prison he is judged by the director of the prison. For those misdemeanors within the jurisdiction of the court in the first instance he is judged by a court which corresponds to the correctional tribunal of France and which is composed of the chief of the district and of two members. The sentence is always confirmed by the governor of the island.

For crimes, properly called, the convict is judged by a court. In Siberia we do not have juries, but we have a court composed of magistrates of the chief places of the provinces of the Amour River, at Kabarofka.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Upon the continent?

Mr. KOMORSKY. Yes. The accused is not sent there; the proceedings are by correspondence.

The number of crimes committed by convicts in Saghalien from 1885 to 1888 is 108, which gives an average of 37 crimes per year. There have been 28 murders, 5 attempts to murder, 5 blows and wounds, 24 cases of grand and petit larceny, and 46 cases of misdemeanor. These figures do not include light violations corrected by the prison administration.

There are few cases of relapse compared to the whole number of exiles. In general, the conduct of the exile is good when free colonization is limited.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Is there an important military force to guard the island?

Mr. KOMORSKY. There are four companies which contain in all 960 soldiers. But as we do not have a sufficient number of guards we are obliged to take men from the companies to serve as guards. These men then receive half of the indemnity paid to the guards. By this fact the armed force, properly so called, is diminished nearly to 200.

Nevertheless there is little to fear from revolts, for there is furnished to every prisoner the possibility of labor and a return to civil life. The individual interest of the prisoners avoids conflicts, and there is no fear from association and conspiracies which exist in prisons and which always must be combated.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Are there any precautions taken to prevent the sale of intoxicating liquors?

Mr. KOMORSKY. This is the principal war we have to wage. Communication with the island is very rare, yet at least fifteen ships come during the summer to the principal port. These vessels are watched very rigorously with reference to alcohol.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Then the sale is prohibited.

Mr. KOMORSKY. Absolutely. Not only the convicts but even the guards and the minor employés have no right to purchase alcohol without the authority of the government. It is only by this authority that alcohol can be taken from the government warehouses, and it is distributed with caution. Alcohol is consequently very rare, and, as contraband, costs sometimes 8 rubles per bottle.

The PRESIDENT. Is there much labor obtained from the prisoners and are the expenses for transportation burdensome in Russia?

Mr. KOMORSKY. The expenses are not high. The establishment costs almost nothing and there are many workmen. What costs is the nails, the iron, the glass, etc. There are at this time forty villages which have been built on the island of Saghalien and which have cost the government something. These villages increase so rapidly that they are often built before the government has notice of their construction.

The maintenance in the island of Saghalien, in the mean time, is a little more expensive to the state, because the latter, as I have said, is obliged to contribute during at least two years to the support of discharged convicts, while there is no such obligation concerning those sentenced to forced labor at Nertschinsk.

Mr. BOURNAT. You have spoken of administrative punishments. What have you now in use? Are there any corporal punishments?

Mr. KOMORSKY. The director has the right to inflict 30 blows with the rod. There are no other corporal punishments he can inflict. The knout ceased to exist in Russia nearly a hundred years ago. There is another instrument which recalls the "cat" in use in the English fleet for the sailors. On judgment confirmed by the governor of the island, 30 blows can be given. On sentence pronounced by the court in case of relapse in crime the number of blows can be increased to 100.

Personally I am not an advocate of this punishment. At the same time I have been obliged to permit it in certain cases. In reality, if instead of a punishment of 30 blows of the rod a man is condemned to prison for 3 or 6 months, who has several children, the latter deprived of their father might perish with poverty and hunger. Yet crime must be punished. Prisoners sometimes request punishment by the rod in preference to the prison.

In Siberia they can not be cruel to prisoners. A director who was cruel to the convicts would be murdered in three days. This is why, as inspector-general, I am obliged sometimes to censure directors for their lack of severity. They reply to me: "We are surrounded by

convicts. What would you have us do?" During my last sojourn in the island I had four convicts in my house; all my servants were convicts. In this condition one could not, without danger, permit himself to be severe.

Mr. L. HERBETTE. Besides, I believe I am authorized to say that the question of corporal punishment had been incidentally announced at the congress of St. Petersburg by persons who were neither French nor Russian. I recall that I had occasion to say to those who wished to raise this question, that we would be well satisfied not to use corporal punishment, but if the good souls who are moved with pity for what transpires in Siberia would regard themselves they would see some phenomena stranger than the rod. This question has not been raised.

Mr. KOMORSKY. Punishment is a question of custom and of habits. There are cases in which I have found it useful. Thus, when a braggart spoke to a chief impertinently, in the presence of other convicts, it was necessary to punish him; not to injure him, but to remove from him the halo which the act gave him when his comrades are about him. It is a more serious case when one prisoner commits a misdemeanor on another prisoner. In this case imprisonment is not considered a punishment; it is necessary to administer a corporal punishment in order that the prisoner, the victim of the misdemeanor, will abandon all idea of personal vengeance.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Are crimes committed on the guards frequently?

Mr. KOMORSKY. During the past 7 years there have been two crimes and one offense of importance outside of the island of Saghalien. In the island a director has been assassinated and two guards. The last two crimes were tried by court-martial.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. What has been the punishment for these special crimes?

Mr. KOMORSKY. Hanging for the murderers. In the case of insult to the guard he was acquitted, because the guard in this case was himself guilty of misconduct.

In extraordinary cases the governor-general of the provinces of the Amour River has a special right, a right which is given him by the Emperor, to name a council of war. There have been four or five such cases during the past 7 years.

Mr. BOURNAT. Under what circumstances does banishment take place?

Mr. KOMORSKY. Six months before the expiration of the sentence of a prisoner the opinion of the commune is requested and it has the right to accept or reject the prisoner.

Mr. BOURNAT. Is it at the expense of the state that the convict is sent to Siberia?

Mr. KOMORSKY. If he is refused he is sent into the provinces of eastern Siberia and he is there installed at the expense of the state. Your question reminds me that there is a law being considered tending to make the communes pay the expenses of banishment.

Mr. BOURNAT. Do many communes accept their erring members?

Mr. KOMORSKY. The most of them do.

Mr. JOLY. It was told us in Russia that nearly 5 per cent. of the discharged were rejected by the commune.

Mr. KOMORSKY. Perhaps even more.

Mr. BOURNAT. Is this acceptance by the commune serious, or is it only a favor on the part of the chief of the commune, who, to exempt the convict from Siberia, accepts him in order to release him immediately?

Mr. KOMORSKY. No; this question is seriously deliberated in the commune, which knows very well who are the professional criminals who have done so much injury to the public, and those who, however faulty, are not hardened criminals. It is not a communal council, but it is all the commune which pronounces judgment.

Mr. BOURNAT. Is all the commune called to vote?

Mr. KOMORSKY. A report of the discussion is prepared and it is necessary that there should be two thirds of the vote to exile the prisoner.

Mr. DUBOIS. To what treatment are the exiles subjected?

Mr. KOMORSKY. They are obliged to remain 5 years in the district designated for them. It is necessary for you to understand the word district, for there are some districts there greater than one-half of France.

Mr. DUBOIS. What are their means of existence?

Mr. KOMORSKY. These provinces are very rich and here is an example: A Russian merchant engaged in the wheat trade between eastern Siberia and England had two ships wrecked at the mouth of the river Ob. He sent there a third, satisfied that if this vessel reached England the benefits he would receive would pay him for the ships and cargoes lost. There is no country more fertile than eastern Siberia. One can get in this country nearly 32 pounds of wheat for about 12 cents. If you ask for 10 cents worth of vegetables they bring you a great basket full.

Mr. DUBOIS. Is banishment applicable to women and are they consulted?

Mr. KOMORSKY. It applies according to law, but it is rarely put in practice because the communes seldom decline to accept them.

The PRESIDENT. What is the principal form of hard labor in the island of Saghalien?

Mr. KOMORSKY. The work of the convicts is performed in the open air. They are engaged principally in the establishment of roads, in the improvement of land, the drainage of the soil, and the construction of buildings. Besides this we have coal mines, but these mines are operated by only 400 men, who have been guilty of capital crimes or are recidivists.

The PRESIDENT. If they refuse to work how are they compelled?

Mr. KOMORSKY. They are handcuffed and are obliged to work in

prison guarded by soldiers. The work is done under these conditions by groups of 5 to 12 convicts who are obliged to do a certain task. In this way if any convict does not wish to work the others compel him to, so that all may not be punished.

Mr. BOGELOT. Is the responsibility collective?

Mr. KOMORSKY. I have been obliged to use this method in 1888 and in 1889, this collective responsibility in the hard-labor forces of Nertchinsk for the men who were on conditional discharge. I have secured also a decrease of escapes. The latter, which rose in 1886 to 24 per 100 and in 1887 to 31 per 100, fell in 1888 to 12 per 100. You can judge that this system has given efficient results.

Mr. DUBOIS. Is the necessary work for the support of the convicts done by transported exiles?

Mr. KOMORSKY. Not only the necessary work for the support of the convicts, but even the necessary work for the support of the employés of the administration. We are obliged, wanting subordinate employés, to have recourse, even in the offices, to convicts to do the writing. I consider that the punishment of labor consists in the quantity, and not in the quality. One can work in the mines two hours each day and be more free than in working in an office during twelve hours.

Mr. LE COURBE. Mr. Komorsky, will you tell us whether the work in the mines, which seems to us so fearful at a distance, is as hard and terrible as generally considered?

Mr. KOMORSKY. That depends upon the circumstances in which it is accomplished. At this time the work in the mines of Siberia is not as hard as other labor because the conditions are very good. The coal mines are not under the surface. They are in the mountains, so that they always have fresh air and there are no explosions to fear. The coal is lowered, not raised, and this is much easier. Then it depends on the quantity of the work, and not on the quality. The mining district of Nertchinsk—for it is not the prison administration which sets the tasks—formerly gave such little ones that in two hours they were finished.

Three years ago, at these same mines of Nertchinsk, where forced labor prevails, I have been obliged to interfere because the convicts sometimes earn 10 kopecks for the state and 50 for themselves by their extra labor. The object was to make them earn 30 kopecks for the state and as much for themselves. The extra work is done by the prisoners out on conditional liberation, who, after having completed their task, are free to work in the fields or to continue their work in the same or a neighboring mine.

Mr. DUBOIS. Do a part of these mines belong to private parties?

Mr. KOMORSKY. These mines belong especially to the imperial court, which rents certain gold mines to individuals.

Mr. DUBOIS. Do private parties pay more than the state for miners' labor?

Mr. KOMORSKY. The same is paid by each. If the administration of mines pay less, no one will dare work for it. The pay is estimated according to the weight of the metal, whether the work has been done by a free workman or by a convict. The convicts always receive less than the others, because they work less as a general rule. In regard to discharged prisoners, we give them a lighter task so they may have more time to work for themselves. This is even obligatory, for the law says that with conditional liberations there should be a diminution of the task.

Mr. BOURNAT. Are all the works directed by the administration? Are there any intermediates between the administration and the prisoners to direct the work?

Mr. KOMORSKY. In the island of Saghalien there are no intermediates. The administration directs all the work and at the expense of the state. For special work we have architects and engineers, but they give their orders to directors and underdirectors of prisons, and the latter give their orders to the guards. Among the convict laborers of Nertchinsk we have no intermediate person, except an engineer of the mining prison administration, who is not attached to the prison administration and who oversees the technical features of the work.

Mr. XAVIER BLANC. You have told us that the clearing up of the lands formed a considerable part of the labors of the convicts. Can you tell us whether these improvements have resulted, as they have in the French colonies, and notably in Guiana, in developing epidemics?

Mr. KOMORSKY. In French Guiana the epidemics have been produced by the cultivation of the marshes. But our marshes are shallow; they are not deep. The island of Saghalien is in an exceptional condition. At present there are not only no epidemics, but there is not even a prevalence of the epizoöty.

Mr. LÉVEILLÉ. Russian transportation has various causes. I desire to know, if I am not indiscreet, what are the projects of reform being considered in Russia. They tell us in France, and I do not believe that it is correct, that the Russian Government wishes to abolish transportation.

Mr. KOMORSKY. Not only has there never been such a question, but I suppose that transportation could even be increased; that is to say, that the number of sentences to hard labor could be enlarged. The question of abolition relates rather to that of the exile for colonization, without obligatory labor for criminal punishment. In this way convicts would be classified between imprisonment and transportation properly called.

Mr. JOLY. And centralized in the island of Saghalien?

Mr. KOMORSKY. In the island of Saghalien and at Nertchinsk; for the mining question is very serious, and it is necessary to bring to it the labor of convicts; that is to say, of obligatory labor.

Mr. LÉVEILLÉ. I desire to obtain from Mr. Komorsky a public re-

newal of the promise he made to some of us in Russia. Mr. Komorsky, who has given us very liberally, and without reservation, much information, promised me to prepare a study upon Russian transportation. I need not say to you that I eagerly accepted this offer, for Mr. Komorsky speaks excellent French and can produce a work extremely useful.

Mr. LE COURBE. So much the more now that he is our colleague.

Mr. KOMORSKY. Gentlemen, you have shown me great indulgence during the International Prison Congress and you continue it here. I thank you and now ask you to excuse me for having so long occupied your time.

The PRESIDENT. I desire, before adjournment, to express the sentiment of all present in thanking Mr. Komorsky for the information so full of interest which he has furnished us. As Mr Léveillé says, Mr. Komorsky knows his subject admirably and presents it as clearly as a Frenchman. Mr. Komorsky has given us extremely valuable information upon transportation. He has shown us how a neighboring country of ours, whose friendship at this time is the best guaranty of peace, has succeeded in organizing transportation with little expense to the state, and which produces good results in this sense, that relapse to crime is very limited and the elevation of criminals operates progressively to aid them in different standings they may obtain in Siberia.

You have, above all, been struck by what has been accomplished in this marvelous country. They tell you of villages built as by enchantment, with no cost to the state. Ah, well, if we could do something like it in New Caledonia we should esteem ourselves happy, our finances would be found improved, and the end towards which our society tends in so ardent a manner would be rapidly attained.

Mr. Louis Herbette then spoke of the great work accomplished by Mr. Komorsky in inaugurating and conducting the great International Prison Exposition, and of the hospitality of Russia for the members of the congress. The society soon after adjourned.

NOTE.—With the exception of the London Congress and the Glasgow Conference the proceedings and addresses furnishing material for this report were in the French language. It has been the aim of the writer to interpret as clearly as he could the views of the various speakers. This has often been difficult, as each one had a style and idiom peculiar to himself, and in such an international assembly often spoke in a language other than his own. That the writer has not always correctly interpreted he is fully aware.

Yet if this report shall serve to create a wider interest in the movement of the nations to make penology one of the exact sciences, he will be largely reconciled for any lack of appreciation of this effort.

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